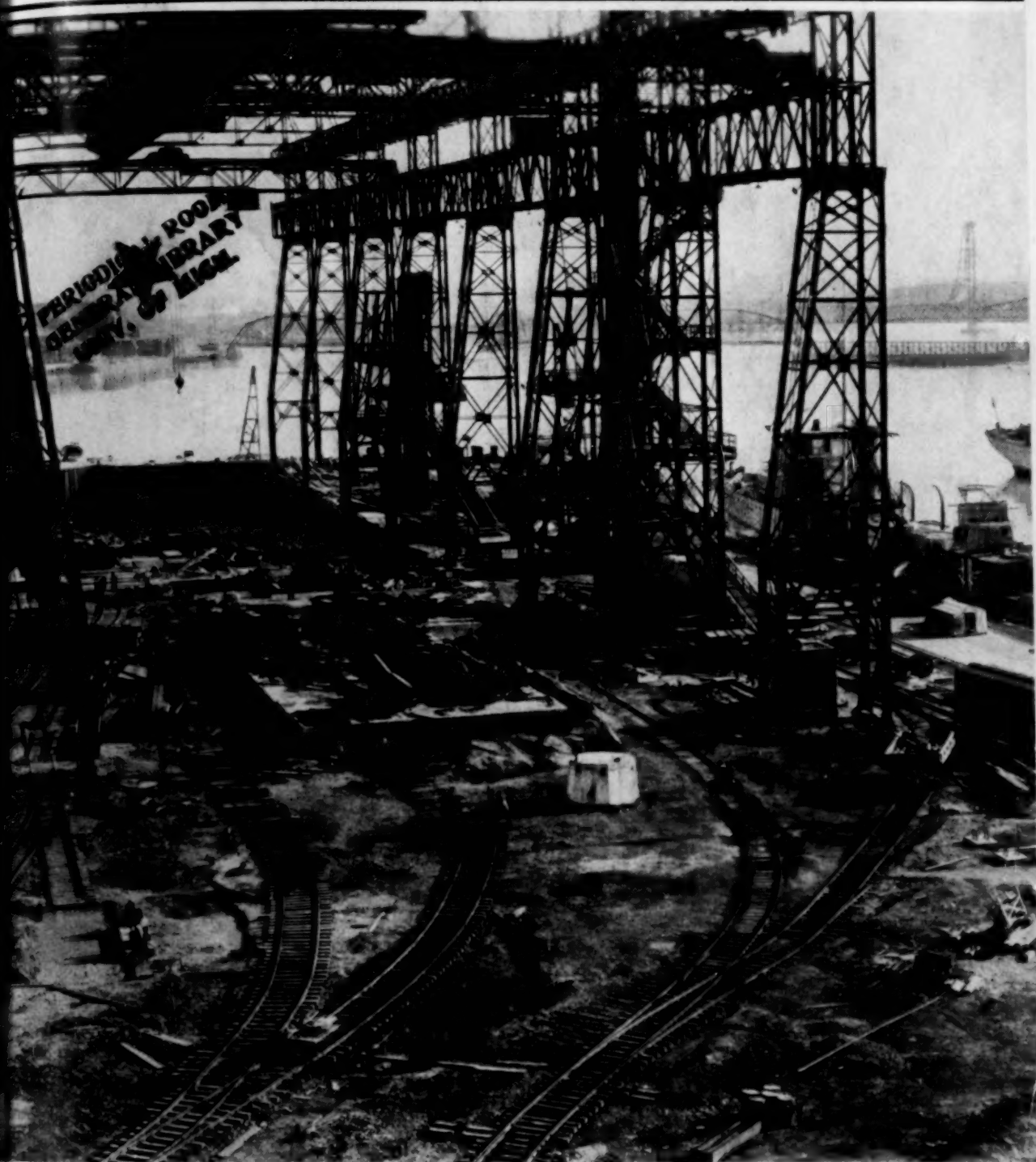


# MONTHLY **LABOR REVIEW**

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS



Shipbuilding Ways, United States Navy Yard

*In this issue...* Relation of Age to Industrial Injuries • Four Years of Public Contracts Act • Annual Earnings in Steel Industry • Occupational Distribution of Job Seekers • Shift Operations Under Union Agreements

OCTOBER 1940

51 • No. 4

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# MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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# MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR OCTOBER 1940

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## RELATION OF AGE TO INDUSTRIAL INJURIES

By MAX D. KOSSORIS, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

### *Summary*

DURING the last 20 years workers have repeatedly voiced their objections to discrimination against older workers in management's hiring policies. One of the reasons cited in justification for this policy is that the older worker is more of an accident risk than is the younger worker. In substantiation, it has been contended, first, that the physiological changes which accompany age decrease the speed of the older worker's reaction to danger, thus increasing his chances of getting hurt; and second, that once injured, his chances of recovery without permanent impairment are less, and that his period of recovery is longer than for the younger worker.

The present article is an attempt to evaluate these contentions. It shows that older workers were injured less frequently than younger workers; but once injured, they experienced proportionately more deaths and permanent impairments than did younger workers. Similarly, their healing periods in temporary disability were, on the average, longer.

The available surveys in this field are analyzed in detail later in this article. Their principal findings are summarized below:

Four plants—two of them public utilities, one a light manufacturing, and another a heavy manufacturing company—had during 1937 a working force of about 26,000. In terms of frequency rates—i. e., the average number of disabling injuries per million hours worked—workers between 40 and 54 years of age had rates only about two-thirds as high as workers under 21, and 70 percent as high as workers between 21 and 29. The rates for the 40-54 year group were about on a level with those for workers between 30 and 39. The rate for workers of 60 and over was lower than that for workers under 21, and about the same as for those between 21 and 29 years of age.

The same trend is shown by an analysis of about 350,000 industrial injuries reported to the Wisconsin Industrial Commission during the



period 1919-38. It revealed that the percentage of injuries in the upper age groups was, as a rule, somewhat lower than the percentage of gainful workers in those age groups.

The Swiss experience, covering about 95,500 injuries during the period 1930-34, showed that for every 1,000 man-years of exposure to the hazard of industrial injury, older workers consistently had fewer injuries than younger workers. The frequencies of injuries per 1,000 man-years for workers between 40 and 49 were less than three-fourths of those for workers between 20 and 34. Of particular interest is the fact that the injury frequency for workers of 60 or more years of age was less than half that for the ages 20 to 29.

The Austrian experience quoted by the International Labor Office in its study, "Discrimination Against Elderly Workers," also pointed to the same conclusion. The accident frequency reached its maximum for workers between the ages of 20 and 30, and thereafter fell steadily with advancing age. At 50, it was only two-thirds of the maximum, and at age 60, less than one-half. Although these decreases are much greater than those indicated by the available United States data, and probably explainable by differences in industries and occupations, they point in the same direction: injuries occurred proportionately less frequently to the older than to the younger workers.

Once injured, however, the older workers did not fare so well as the younger workers. The proportion of injuries which resulted in death or permanent impairment was considerably higher in the upper age groups.

The nearly 350,000 industrial injuries reported to the Wisconsin Industrial Commission contained 3,337 deaths. For every 1,000 injuries reported, workers between the ages 21 and 25 had an average of about 6 deaths. For the age group 31 to 36, this number rose to 10; for ages 41 to 45, it remained at about 10; for ages 51 to 55, the rate increased to 12; for ages 61 to 65, to 17; and for ages 71 and over, to 36. Thus, workers in the forties had no worse a death-rate experience than those in the thirties. It was above 50 that the difference became marked. In this age group, the death rate was nearly twice that for workers in their twenties, and about 25 percent higher than for persons in the thirties and forties. The rate for workers in the sixties, in turn, was nearly one-quarter above that for workers in the fifties, and about three-quarters again as high as for those in the thirties and forties.

The New York experience, with about 346,000 cases, showed the same trend. Workers in the 20 to 29 age group had about 7 deaths out of every 1,000 injuries reported; for workers between 30 and 39, the rate was 9; for 40 to 49, it rose to 12. From age 50 onward, the rate rose more steeply. The average of 19 deaths per 1,000 injuries for ages 50 to 59 was nearly half again as high as that for workers in the



forties. The rate of 33 for workers in their sixties, in turn, was nearly twice as high as for workers in the fifties, two-and-one-half times as high as for workers in the forties, and five times as high as for those in the twenties.

Although the New York and Wisconsin figures are not directly comparable for a number of reasons, they both emphasize, however, the high proportion of injuries resulting in death in the upper age groups. The New York data indicate further that the fatality experience of female workers, although less pronounced than that for male workers, is nevertheless in complete agreement.

The Swiss experience, likewise, showed a frequency of death per 1,000 accidents that was twice as high for workers between 40 and 50 as for those under 30, and about half again as high as for those in their thirties. Workers in their fifties experienced proportionately twice as many deaths as persons in the thirties, and about half again as many as those in the forties. Above 60, and especially above 70, the frequency of death rose still more abruptly.

For permanent impairments the differences are less pronounced, but are still clearly discernible. In the Wisconsin experience, workers above 50 had about 13 percent more permanent impairments per 1,000 injuries than workers of 50 or less. Workers between the ages 51 and 60 had an average of 98 such injuries as against 82 for the 21- to 30-year group.

In the New York cases, workers in the forties had nearly one-third again as many permanent impairments as had workers in their twenties. Workers in their fifties had proportionately 50 percent more impairments than workers in the twenties. And for workers above 50 years of age, the permanent injury rate was about one-quarter higher than for workers under 50.

Similarly, when the older worker fully recovers from an injury, it takes him, on the average, longer to do so. For the 4 companies cited, the average healing period for workers between 40 and 44 was 30 days, as against 23 days for workers between 21 and 24 years of age. For ages 55 and over, the healing period averaged 34 days.

Wisconsin data, covering the years 1927-28, showed an average of 21 days for temporarily disabled workers between ages 23 to 27, 28 days for ages 53 to 57, and 30 days for ages 63 to 67.

The same trend was followed in the Swiss experience, in which the healing period averaged 20 days for workers between 20 and 30 years of age, 30 days for workers of age 50, and 34 days for age 65.

The data on which these findings are based included nearly a million cases of disabling industrial injuries. This volume is sufficiently large to warrant the reasonableness of the conclusions. However, the conclusions are not to be interpreted as justification for discriminating against the hiring of the older worker on the ground that he is a more

*costly* accident risk. The relative cost of less frequent injuries of greater severity to older workers and of more frequent injuries of lesser severity to younger workers still needs to be determined.

### *Limitations of Statistical Data*

The data bearing on the problem of the relation of age to industrial injury are scattered and far from adequate. Nevertheless, they do point to several definite conclusions; although, before entering into a discussion of these and the supporting material, it is pertinent to call attention to several considerations which, because of paucity of statistical information, must be treated qualitatively rather than statistically.

Foremost in the deficiencies of available information is the lack of adequate exposure data. For any specified number of persons within a given age group who were reported to have been disabled through industrial injuries, how many were exposed to the hazard of being injured at their jobs? In the United States, for large geographic entities such as States, the statistics available are those compiled decennially by the census in the population count. Age distributions are shown separately for gainful workers but include both employed and unemployed. On the other hand, industrial injuries reported to State agencies, such as workmen's compensation boards, in practice never cover all gainful workers. There are usually omissions in coverage extending to specified industries, certain types of employment, or establishments with a specified minimum number of employees. Again, in a considerable number of States, injuries resulting in disability not exceeding a specified "waiting period" are not required to be reported. And, in a number of States which by law require the reporting of these "waiting period cases," the actual reporting of them is not strongly enforced and at times is actually discouraged.

Equally important is the absence of occupational data. If an adequate comparison is to be made for various age groups, it is desirable that these comparisons be made between workers in the same or similar occupations. Such occupational exposure and injury data, however, are practically nonexistent. At the same time, however, it must be pointed out that such data, even if they were available, would be subject to severe limitations. A considerable number of occupations require a degree of skill which only a protracted training period can develop. The same is true of hazardous occupations requiring considerable experience and maturity of judgment. Consequently, younger workers are automatically excluded from such occupations. On the other hand, the pace set by machines often bars from a number of occupations older workers who have not the required speed—either of action or reaction—and the necessary endurance. Similarly, a large number of manual occupations require an amount of

physical strength not usually possessed by older workers.<sup>1</sup> Such jobs, in addition to being more arduous, are frequently also hazardous.

Further, the same occupational designation often covers types of work and accident hazards which differ greatly from industry to industry, and often between establishments in the same industry. A machinist whose function it is to keep power sewing machines in good repair is under an accident hazard quite different from one who has to repair heavy machinery. Further, variations in working conditions provide entirely different accident hazards even if the occupation is exactly the same.

These generalizations, of course, hold good only for workers as a mass. There is no question but that the physiological changes involved in the aging process—the atrophy of tissues, stiffening of ligaments, increasing brittleness of bones, decreasing accommodation of heart and eye, and the lessening of the recuperative power of the body generally—differ greatly as between individual workers.<sup>2</sup> Some workers at 45 years of age are more aged physically than others at 60.

Another deficiency concerns the accuracy of reported ages, either as shown on injury reports or in the census. An analysis of census data as well as of injury statistics of State workmen's compensation boards indicates accentuations in the age distributions at the 5-year points and, secondarily, at even years. A recent publication of the New York State Department of Labor,<sup>3</sup> showing ages of injured employees, lists 2,027 workers at age 38, 1,820 at 39, 2,410 at 40, 1,491 at 41, and 1,868 at 42. However, this tendency to estimate age instead of stating it exactly can be partly overcome statistically by a grouping of ages into 5- or 10-year periods.

### *Age and Frequency of Industrial Injuries*

The data on which this study is based include 4 large companies with about 26,000 workers in 1937, the Wisconsin experience from 1919 through 1938 with nearly 350,000 reported injuries, the experience of the Swiss National Accident Insurance Fund, 1930–1934, with more than 95,000 reported disabilities, and the Austrian experience. The findings substantiate those of earlier investigations in the United States and other countries.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup> The International Labor Office report, *Discrimination Against Elderly Workers* (London, 1938), cites the results of tests for functional efficiency, reported by E. Weiss in *Psychotechnik*, 1937, *Leistung und Lebensalter*. The tests, conducted on unskilled workers, streetcar conductors, and locomotive engineers, showed that sensory alertness and physical dexterity began to fall off after 45 and that mental faculties exhibited increasing unwieldiness from that age on. Older workers up to age 60 gave as good results as young men of 20 on daily routine work, but had greater difficulty in adapting themselves to changed conditions.

<sup>2</sup> For a summary of impairments according to age, see New York Joint Legislative Committee on Unemployment, *Legislative Document No. 33: The Older Worker in Industry*, by Solomon Barkin, Albany, 1933, pp. 104 and 107.

<sup>3</sup> New York State Department of Labor, *Special Bulletin No. 202: Cost of Compensation, Two Years, 1936 and 1937*, Albany, 1939, p. 77.

<sup>4</sup> See *The Older Worker in Industry*, above cited, for an analysis of 65 New York State manufacturing and 4 railroad-repair shops. Lucian W. Chaney (U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 298: Causes



## EXPERIENCE OF FOUR COMPANIES, 1937

Of the four companies whose experiences are grouped in table 1, two are utilities, one is engaged in heavy and another in light manufacturing activities. Because the number of female workers employed was small, the data shown here are restricted to male workers.

TABLE 1.—*Injury-Frequency Experience of 4 Companies, 1937, by Age of Workers*<sup>1</sup>

Age group	Number of workers	Hours worked (in thousands)	Number of disabling injuries	Frequency rate
All ages.....	26,058	53,899	634	11.76
Under 21 years.....	522	1,022	17	16.64
21 to 24 years.....	2,318	5,053	73	14.45
25 to 29 years.....	4,040	8,580	126	14.69
30 to 34 years.....	4,518	9,159	94	10.26
35 to 39 years.....	3,914	7,959	72	9.05
40 to 44 years.....	3,327	6,784	73	10.76
45 to 49 years.....	2,691	5,520	58	10.51
50 to 54 years.....	2,163	4,465	48	10.75
55 to 59 years.....	1,441	2,994	38	12.69
60 years and over.....	1,124	2,363	35	14.81

<sup>1</sup> Includes 2 public utilities, 1 heavy manufacturing and 1 light manufacturing company.

In terms of injury-frequency rates, table 1 indicates that workers under 30 years of age had more disabling injuries per million hours worked than those of 30 and over, with the exception of the group including those aged 60 years and over. The frequency rates for ages between 40 and 55 were on about the same level as for those between 30 and 40, and decidedly lower than those under 30. On the other hand, the frequency rate of 14.81 for workers of 60 and over, although above the rates for those between 30 and 60 years of age, was no worse than for workers below 30. The available data do not permit any conclusion as to whether this was due to placing these older workers in less hazardous occupations because of advanced age.

## WISCONSIN EXPERIENCE

In March 1930 the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin pointed out that "older workers have fewer accidents."<sup>5</sup> In support of this conclusion it compared the data of the 1920 population census (i. e., gainful workers) with the 10-year annual average number of compensable cases settled, covering the period 1919-1928. The comparison in terms of number of compensated injuries in each age group per

and Prevention of Accidents in the Iron and Steel Industry, 1910-1919, pp. 173-6) noted that the occupations of older workers were often as hazardous as those for younger workers and attributed the higher frequency rate for younger workers to inexperience and immaturity. E. M. Newbold (Great Britain, Industrial Fatigue Research Board, Report No. 34: A Contribution to the Study of the Human Factor in the Causation of Accidents) came to the same conclusions for different age groups in the same or similar occupations.

<sup>5</sup> Wisconsin Labor Statistics, March 14, 1930.



1,000 persons "employed" (i. e., shown by the census as gainful workers) is given below.<sup>5</sup>

	Number of injuries per 1,000 gainful workers <sup>1</sup>		Number of injuries per 1,000 gainful workers <sup>1</sup>
Average, all ages-----	19.4	17 years-----	11.4
10 to 13 years-----	1.9	18 to 19 years-----	20.8
14 years-----	3.7	20 to 24 years-----	21.1
15 years-----	4.5	25 to 44 years-----	20.1
16 years-----	8.3	45 to 64 years-----	19.0
		65 years and over-----	15.1

<sup>1</sup> Original figures rounded to one decimal.

The age groupings shown are those used by the Bureau of the Census. Disregarding the injuries to minors under 18 years of age, the comparison indicates that workers between the ages 45 and 64 had fewer compensated injuries per 1,000 gainfully employed than workers between 20 and 44, and still fewer after age 64.

The tabulation is open to the objection that the gainful-worker figures for Wisconsin include a heavy proportion engaged in agriculture, and that such persons are specifically excluded from the coverage of the workmen's compensation act, with the result that agricultural injuries are not included in the industrial commission's injury data. Inasmuch as the age requirements for agricultural occupations differ from those of most other industries, it appears desirable to use for comparison not the entire gainful-worker population of Wisconsin, but the age distribution in a diversified industrial area such as Milwaukee, the largest city in Wisconsin. In table 2 are shown the age distribution of gainful workers in Milwaukee as of 1930, and the average age distribution for industrially injured workers for the period 1919 through 1938, omitting 1933 and 1934 for which data are incomplete. Further, the comparison is shown in terms of percentages in each age group, rather than in number of injuries per 1,000 gainful workers.

TABLE 2.—Industrial Injuries in Wisconsin and Gainful Workers in Milwaukee, by Age Groups

Age group (in years)		Percent of all ages		Age group (in years)		Percent of all ages	
Census of 1930	Wisconsin Industrial Commission	Gainful workers in Milwaukee <sup>1</sup>	Number of injuries reported <sup>2</sup>	Census of 1930	Wisconsin Industrial Commission	Gainful workers in Milwaukee <sup>1</sup>	Number of injuries reported <sup>2</sup>
Under 20-----	Under 21-----	7.9	10.2	45 to 49-----	46 to 50-----	8.4	8.3
20 to 24-----	21 to 25-----	16.5	16.8	50 to 54-----	51 to 55-----	6.5	6.1
25 to 29-----	26 to 30-----	14.9	14.8	55 to 59-----	56 to 60-----	4.4	4.7
30 to 34-----	31 to 35-----	12.9	12.3	60 to 64-----	61 to 65-----	3.0	3.0
35 to 39-----	36 to 40-----	12.2	11.9	65 to 69-----	66 to 70-----	1.9	1.6
40 to 44-----	41 to 45-----	10.3	9.6	70 and over----	71 and over----	1.1	.7

<sup>1</sup> Computed from 15th Census of the United States, 1930, vol. IV, p. 1766.

<sup>2</sup> Computed from mimeographed data issued in 1939 by the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, covering the period 1919-38. Years 1933 and 1934 have been omitted because incomplete.

<sup>3</sup> Wisconsin Labor Statistics, March 14, 1930.

Although the age groupings used in the census and in the injury tables are 1 year apart, the difference is not sufficient to vitiate a comparison. If the assumption is granted that the age distribution of 254,000 gainful workers in the industrial city of Milwaukee is typical of industrial workers covered under the Wisconsin workmen's compensation law, the comparison between the two series of percentages is striking.<sup>6</sup> The percent of the total injuries for successive age groups above 21 years closely parallels the percentage of total gainful workers in those age groups. In fact, after age 35, the data indicate that the relative proportion in successive age groups is quite consistently below the proportion of gainful workers. The comparison is still more striking when shown graphically, as in chart 1. The conclusion indicated by this comparison is that older workers are not injured proportionately more frequently than younger workers, but that, on the contrary, there is a slight advantage in favor of the older workers.

#### SWISS AND AUSTRIAN EXPERIENCES

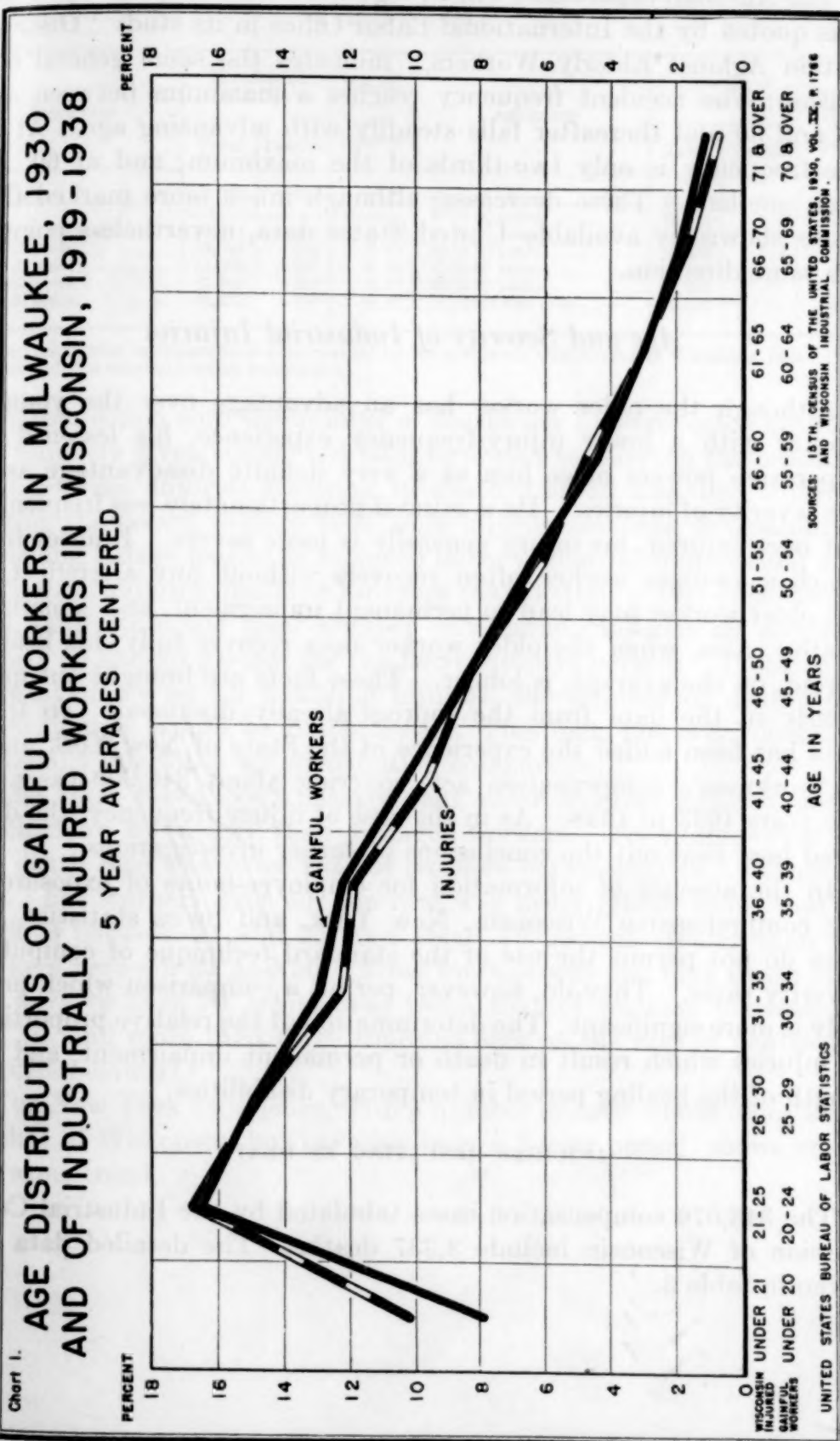
The Swiss experience, covering the years 1930 to 1934, and including 95,511 injuries, is couched in terms of "frequency of accidents per 1,000 years of life exposed to risk," analogous to 1,000 man-years worked. As is apparent from the tabular statement below, it shows that for every 1,000 years of exposure older workers had fewer disabling injuries than younger workers. In fact, the "accident"<sup>7</sup> frequency for ages 60 and over was less than half that for ages 20 to 24 or 25 to 29. Similarly, the frequencies for ages 40 to 44 and 45 to 49 were less than three-fourths of those for ages between 20 and 34.

	Frequency of accidents per 1,000 years of life exposed to risk <sup>1</sup>
19 years or less.....	179
20 to 24 years.....	216
25 to 29 years.....	218
30 to 34 years.....	200
35 to 39 years.....	179
40 to 44 years.....	163
45 to 49 years.....	148
50 to 54 years.....	137
55 to 59 years.....	127
60 to 64 years.....	108
65 to 69 years.....	85
70 years and over.....	50

<sup>1</sup> Data are from International Labor Office, Report on Discrimination Against Elderly Workers (London, 1938). The total number of years of life exposed to risk was 533,643.

<sup>6</sup> It should also be kept in mind that the census term "gainful workers" includes employed as well as unemployed workers. In the above comparison it is assumed that no individual age group was affected disproportionately by unemployment to an extent sufficient to vitiate the comparison.

<sup>7</sup> "Accident" is used as equivalent to "injury."





The Austrian experience, which, together with the Swiss experience, was quoted by the International Labor Office in its study "Discrimination Against Elderly Workers," indicates the same general conclusion: The accident frequency reaches a maximum between ages 20 and 30 and thereafter falls steadily with advancing age. At 50, the frequency is only two-thirds of the maximum, and at 60, less than one-half. These decreases, although much more marked than those shown by available United States data, nevertheless point in the same direction.

### *Age and Severity of Industrial Injuries*

Although the older worker has an advantage over the younger worker with a lower injury-frequency experience, his lessened recuperative powers place him at a very definite disadvantage as to the severity of injuries. He is injured proportionately less frequently, but once injured, his injury generally is more severe. Injuries from which a younger worker often recovers without any aftereffect, in the older worker may lead to permanent impairment, and sometimes death. Also, when the older worker does recover fully, his healing period, on the average, is longer. These facts are brought out quite clearly in the data from the sources already discussed. To these data has been added the experience of the State of New York under its workmen's compensation act, covering about 346,000 cases for the years 1933 to 1938. As in the case of injury frequency, the data cited here bear out the conclusions of earlier investigations.

In the absence of information for employee-hours of exposure in the comprehensive Wisconsin, New York, and Swiss statistics, the data do not permit the use of the standard technique of computing severity rates. They do, however, permit a comparison which probably is more significant: The determination of the relative proportions of injuries which result in death or permanent impairment, and the length of the healing period in temporary disabilities.

#### INJURIES RESULTING IN DEATH

The 348,676 compensation cases tabulated by the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin include 3,337 deaths. The detailed data are given in table 3.



TABLE 3.—Deaths per 1,000 Injuries Reported to Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, 1919 to 1938<sup>1</sup>

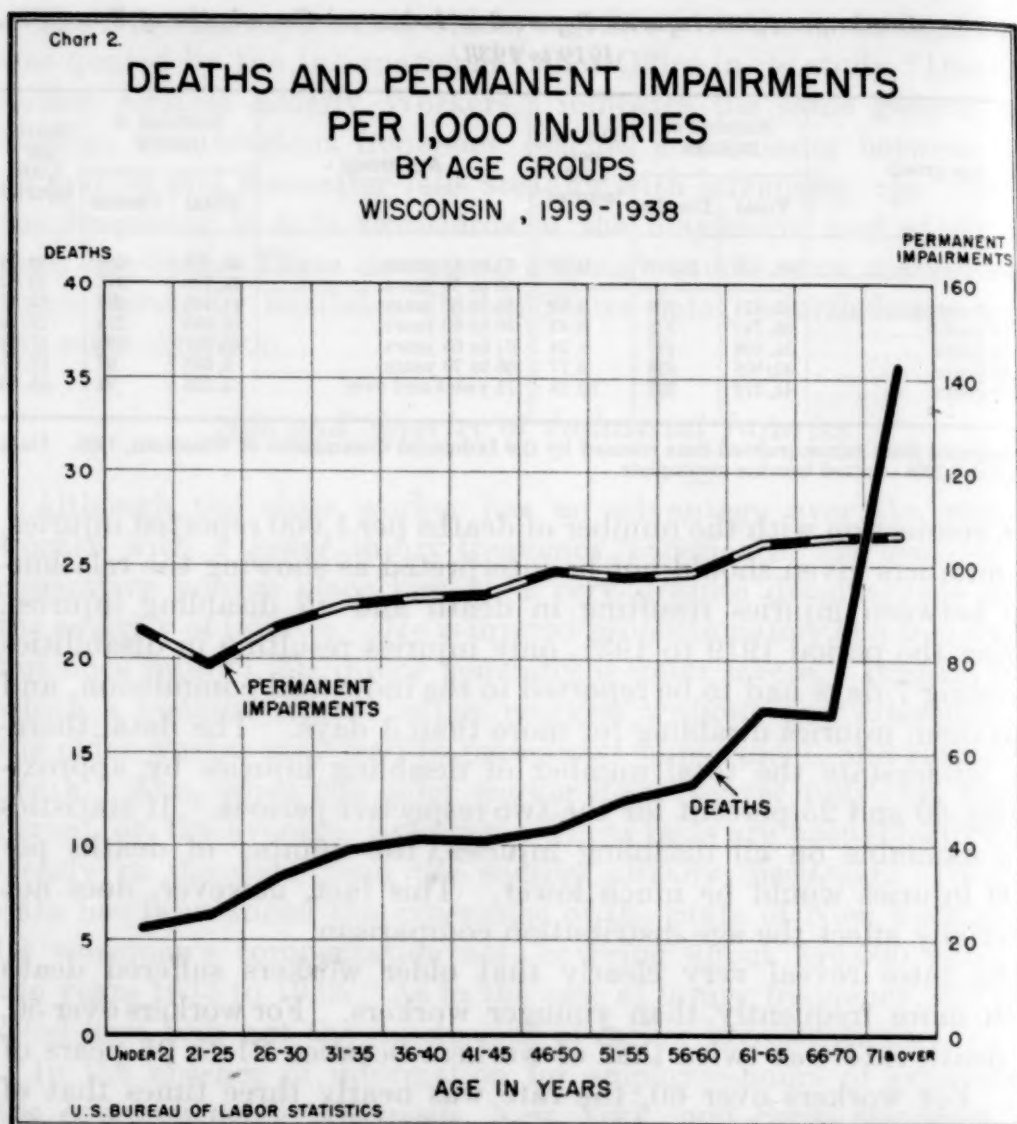
Age group	Number of injuries		Deaths per 1,000 injuries	Age group	Number of injuries		Deaths per 1,000 injuries
	Total	Deaths			Total	Deaths	
All ages.....	348,676	3,337	9.57	41 to 45 years.....	33,476	346	10.34
Under 21 years.....	35,571	200	5.62	46 to 50 years.....	29,109	315	10.82
21 to 25 years.....	58,747	378	6.43	51 to 55 years.....	21,403	267	12.47
26 to 30 years.....	51,198	427	8.34	56 to 60 years.....	16,399	218	13.29
31 to 35 years.....	42,805	418	9.77	61 to 65 years.....	10,517	183	17.40
36 to 40 years.....	41,212	397	10.38	66 to 70 years.....	5,683	97	17.07
				71 years and over.....	2,556	91	35.60

<sup>1</sup> Computed from mimeographed data released by the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, 1939. Data for 1933 and 1934 omitted because incomplete.

In connection with the number of deaths per 1,000 reported injuries, the numbers given should not be interpreted as showing the relationship between injuries resulting in death and *all* disabling injuries. During the period 1919 to 1931, only injuries resulting in disabilities exceeding 7 days had to be reported to the industrial commission, and since then, injuries disabling for more than 3 days. The data, therefore, understate the total number of disabling injuries by approximately 50 and 25 percent for the two respective periods. If statistics were available on all disabling injuries, the number of deaths per 1,000 injuries would be much lower. This fact, however, does not materially affect the age distribution comparison.

The rates reveal very clearly that older workers suffered death much more frequently than younger workers. For workers over 50, the death rate was twice that of workers between 21 to 25 years of age. For workers over 60, the rate was nearly three times that of workers between 21 and 25, and about 70 percent greater than for workers between 31 and 50. Most marked was the high death rate for workers over 70, which was twice that of workers between 61 and 70, and more than three times as high as the rate of deaths for workers below 41.

The New York experience, with a number of cases about equivalent to that of Wisconsin, but covering only a 5-year period, shows much the same trend.

TABLE 4.—Deaths per 1,000 Compensated Industrial Injuries, New York, 1933 to 1937<sup>1</sup>

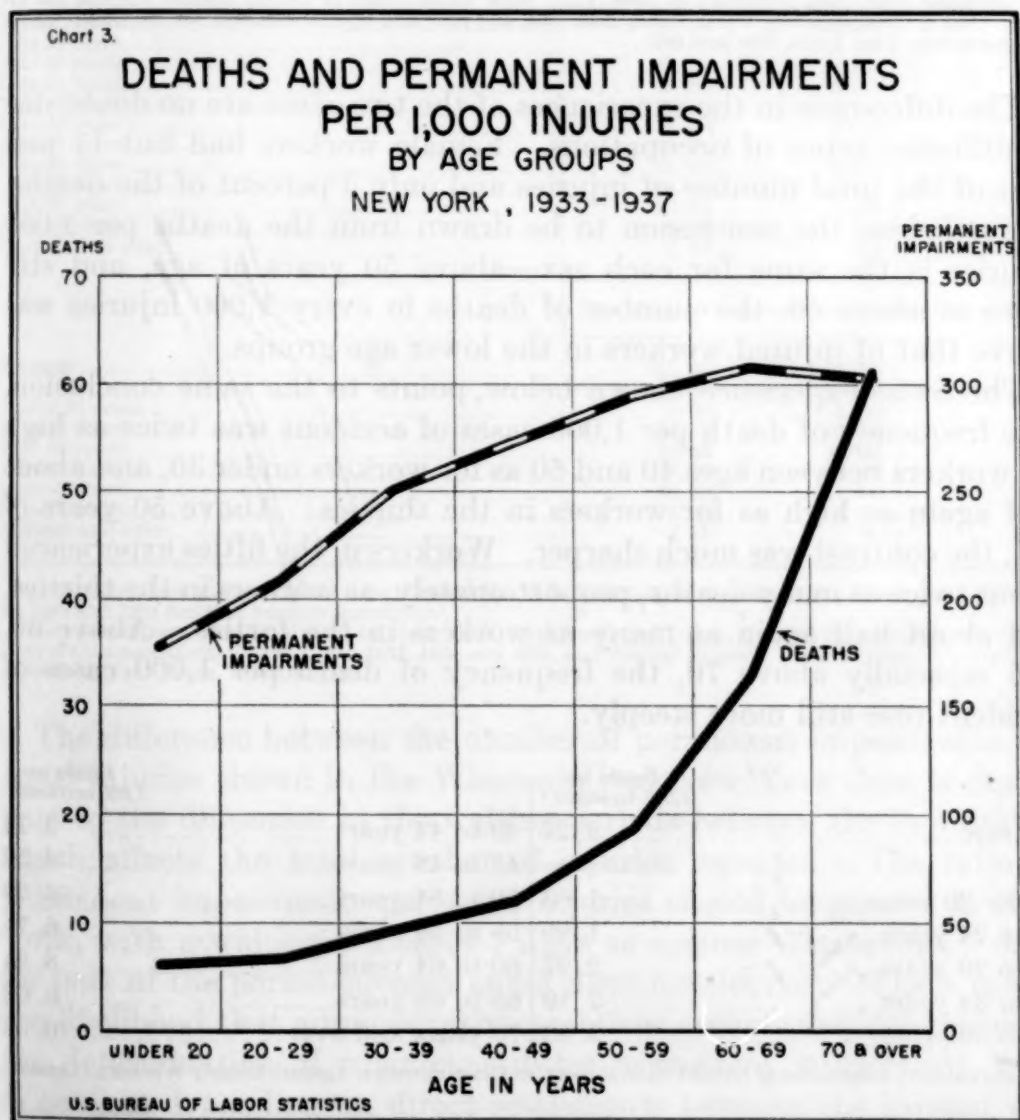
Age group	Number of injuries		Deaths per 1,000 injuries	Age group	Number of injuries		Deaths per 1,000 injuries
	Total	Deaths			Total	Deaths	
All ages.....	345,663	3,982	11.5	40 to 49 years.....	77,454	939	12.1
Under 20 years.....	17,884	109	6.1	50 to 59 years.....	40,216	757	18.8
20 to 29 years.....	98,578	664	6.7	60 to 69 years.....	14,212	468	32.9
30 to 39 years.....	94,996	896	9.4	70 years and over.....	2,323	149	61.1

<sup>1</sup> Computed from data published in New York State Department of Labor. Special Bulletin No. 191 (1937): Cost of Compensation, Three Years, 1933, 1934, and 1935; and Special Bulletin No. 202 (1939): Cost of Compensation, Two Years, 1936 and 1937.

Again, attention must be called to the fact that the total number of injuries shown excludes a large proportion of all disabling injuries because of a 7-day waiting period. What is significant, of course, is the relative number of deaths per 1,000 injuries. Table 4 shows that, per 1,000 injuries, workers between 40 and 49 had nearly twice the

death rate of workers under 30. For workers in the fifties, the rate was three times as high as for those under 30. The rate rose sharply to 32.9 for ages 60 to 69, and to 61.1 for ages 70 and over.

Comparison of the New York data with those of Wisconsin indicates considerable differences in the number of deaths per 1,000 injuries. Part of this is due to a difference in waiting periods before injuries are reportable, and part, no doubt, to differences in industrial composition. What is of significance is not the number of deaths as such, but the upward trend with increasing age. Each of the two States shows for the lower age groups, i. e., below 30 years, rates less than the average for the entire group. But as age increases, the death rate rises persistently. The conclusion to be drawn from the data of each of the two States is that older workers, beginning with age 50 and particularly in the sixties and seventies, died from industrial injuries more frequently than did workers in the lower age groups.



The New York data also permit a comparison between male and female workers. The number of deaths per 1,000 injuries for the two sexes is shown in table 5.

TABLE 5.—Deaths per 1,000 Compensated Industrial Injuries to Male and Female Workers, New York, 1933 to 1937<sup>1</sup>

Age group	Number of injuries		Number of deaths		Deaths per 1,000 injuries	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
All ages.....	308, 876	36, 787	3, 861	121	12. 5	3. 3
Under 20 years.....	14, 053	3, 831	101	8	7. 2	2. 1
20 to 29 years.....	85, 483	13, 095	641	23	7. 5	1. 8
30 to 39 years.....	86, 574	8, 422	870	26	10. 0	3. 1
40 to 49 years.....	70, 592	6, 862	910	29	12. 9	4. 2
50 to 59 years.....	36, 865	3, 351	740	17	20. 1	5. 1
60 to 69 years.....	13, 144	1, 068	455	13	34. 6	12. 2
70 years and over.....	2, 165	158	144	5	66. 5	31. 6

<sup>1</sup> Computed from data published in New York State Department of Labor, Special Bulletin No. 191 (1937): Cost of Compensation, Three Years, 1933, 1934, and 1935; and Special Bulletin No. 202 (1939): Cost of Compensation, Two Years, 1936 and 1937.

The differences in the experiences of the two sexes are no doubt due to different types of occupations. Female workers had but 11 percent of the total number of injuries and only 3 percent of the deaths. Nevertheless, the conclusion to be drawn from the deaths per 1,000 injuries is the same for each sex—above 50 years of age, and still more so above 60, the number of deaths in every 1,000 injuries was above that of injured workers in the lower age groups.

The Swiss experience, shown below, points to the same conclusion. The frequency of death per 1,000 cases of accident was twice as high for workers between ages 40 and 50 as for workers under 30, and about half again as high as for workers in the thirties. Above 50 years of age, the contrast was much sharper. Workers in the fifties experienced about twice as many deaths, proportionately, as workers in the thirties, and about half again as many as workers in the forties. Above 60, and especially above 70, the frequency of death per 1,000 cases of accident rose still more steeply.

	Deaths per 1,000 accidents <sup>1</sup>		Deaths per 1,000 accidents <sup>1</sup>
Average.....	3. 27	40 to 44 years.....	3. 74
		45 to 49 years.....	4. 52
Under 20 years.....	1. 63	50 to 54 years.....	6. 23
20 to 24 years.....	1. 99	55 to 59 years.....	6. 75
25 to 29 years.....	2. 27	60 to 64 years.....	8. 94
30 to 34 years.....	2. 89	65 to 69 years.....	6. 08
35 to 39 years.....	3. 33	70 years and over.....	10. 55

<sup>1</sup> Data are from International Labor Office, Report on Discrimination Against Elderly Workers, (London, 1938).



## PERMANENT IMPAIRMENTS

Available data indicate that older workers suffer a higher proportion of permanent impairments than do younger workers. The differences between age groups, although not nearly so sharp as in the case of injuries resulting in death, is clearly established by the Wisconsin and New York data, given in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Permanent Impairments per 1,000 Industrial Injuries, Wisconsin and New York*

Age group	Number of injuries		Permanent impairments per 1,000 injuries
	Total	Permanent impairments	
Wisconsin—Reported industrial injuries, 1919 to 1938 <sup>1</sup>			
All ages.....	348,676	31,624	90.7
Under 21 years.....	35,571	3,060	86.0
21 to 25 years.....	58,747	4,642	79.0
26 to 30 years.....	51,198	4,457	87.1
31 to 35 years.....	42,805	3,927	91.7
36 to 40 years.....	41,212	3,845	93.3
41 to 45 years.....	33,476	3,139	93.8
46 to 50 years.....	29,109	2,878	98.9
51 to 55 years.....	21,403	2,090	97.7
56 to 60 years.....	16,399	1,614	98.4
61 to 65 years.....	10,517	1,099	104.5
66 to 70 years.....	5,683	601	105.8
71 years and over.....	2,556	272	106.4
New York—Compensated injuries, 1933 to 1937 <sup>2</sup>			
All ages.....	345,663	85,727	248.0
Under 20 years.....	17,884	3,185	178.1
20 to 29 years.....	98,578	20,558	208.5
30 to 39 years.....	94,996	23,846	251.0
40 to 49 years.....	77,454	21,203	273.7
50 to 59 years.....	40,216	11,844	294.5
60 to 69 years.....	14,212	4,385	308.5
70 years and over.....	2,323	706	303.9

<sup>1</sup> Computed from mimeographed data released by the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, 1939. Figures for 1933 and 1934 omitted because incomplete.

<sup>2</sup> Computed from data published in New York Department of Labor, Special Bulletin No. 191 (1937): Cost of Compensation, Three Years, 1933, 1934 and 1935; and Special Bulletin No. 202 (1939): Cost of Compensation, Two Years, 1936 and 1937.

The difference between the number of permanent impairments per 1,000 injuries shown in the Wisconsin and New York data is due in part to the difference in the waiting periods between the two States, which affects the total number of injuries reported. The ratio of permanent impairments per 1,000 injuries should be greater in New York, with a waiting period of 7 days as against Wisconsin's 7 days for part of the period covered and 3 days for the rest. There is also the likelihood that administrative practices account for differences in the determination of what constitutes permanent impairment, with Wisconsin depending on direct settlements between the injured and his employer (or the employer's risk carrier), and New York requiring, at least for the years covered, an appearance before referees of the

industrial commission. Further, the industrial composition of the two States varies considerably. For these, and possibly other differences, the data are not comparable between the two States. The trend of the number of permanent impairments per 1,000 injuries, according to age groups, however, is unmistakable in each set of data. In each there is evident a definite increase in this number as age increases.

In the Wisconsin data, workers between 41 and 50 years of age had 96 permanent impairments per 1,000 injuries, as against 82 in the 21 to 30 year group. For ages 51 to 60, the number increased to 98, and from age 61 on, it was 105 or more. The permanent impairment rate for workers above 50 exceeded that for workers of 50 or less by 13 percent.

In the New York data, proportional permanent impairments for injured workers between ages 40 and 49 exceeded those to workers of ages 20 to 29 by 31 percent, and for workers between 30 and 39 years of age, by nearly 10 percent. For workers in their fifties or over, the excess above the age group 20 to 29 was about 50 percent, and above the age group 30 to 39 about 20 percent. The permanent-injury rate for workers 50 years of age and over exceeded that for workers below 50 by 25 percent.

#### TEMPORARY TOTAL DISABILITY

The question involved, in connection with injuries which temporarily disable workers but leave no permanent impairments, is whether the recuperative or healing period is longer for older than for younger workers. As one would logically expect, the older worker, on the average, required a longer healing period.

Data from the 4 companies cited earlier showed for ages 21 to 24 an average healing period of 23 days, and for ages 25 to 29, 26 days. The period increased to 30 days for ages 40 to 44, and to 34 days for ages 55 and over.

Wisconsin data, covering the two years 1927 and 1928, showed an average of 21.8 days per temporary disability for ages 23 to 27, 25.3 days for ages 38 to 42, 27.8 days for ages 53 to 57, and 30.5 days for ages 63 to 67.

The Swiss experience showed the same general trend. The average healing period for workers between 20 and 30 years of age was 20 days. But for workers of age 50, the period was 30 days, and of age 65, 34 days.

The data cited above, are not to be interpreted as showing that injuries to older workers are, on the average, more costly to an employer than those to younger workers. It is an open question, still to be verified by study, whether the less frequent but more severe injuries to older workers are more or less costly than the more frequent but less severe injuries to younger workers.

## FOUR YEARS OF THE PUBLIC CONTRACTS ACT <sup>1</sup>

OWING to the rapid expansion in Government orders under the rearmament program, the protection afforded to labor under the terms of the Public Contracts Act of 1936—known as the Walsh-Healey Act—is affecting the employment conditions of an increasing volume of industrial workers. Under this law, employees engaged on any Government contract which exceeds \$10,000 in value must be assured of basic hours of not more than 8 per day and 40 per week and be paid not less than the prevailing minimum wage of the industry and locality as determined by the Secretary of Labor. Through misunderstanding it is sometimes stated that the Public Contracts Act definitely limits working hours, but this is not true. No time limitation is imposed, provided that the prescribed rate is paid for overtime hours of work. Males under 16, females under 18, and convict labor may not be employed on Government orders. All Government contractors must guarantee that their employees will work under safe and healthful conditions. They are also required to observe the safety, sanitary, and factory-inspection laws of the State in which the work is performed. Up to August 31, employees of Government contractors in 31 industries—including aircraft and iron and steel—had benefited under determinations of the Secretary of Labor fixing prevailing minimum wages, in accordance with the terms of the law.

In enacting the Public Contracts Act, Congress exercised its powers to regulate conditions of employment when the Federal Government is the purchaser of the goods produced. Although earlier laws under this authority prescribed certain limitations for employees of Government contractors, the standards set were less far reaching in their coverage and the workers who benefited were limited to those engaged on public works. The present law, as already noted, insures equitable standards as regards hours, safety and health, child labor, convict labor, and (once a wage determination is issued for an industry engaged on Government contracts) the payment of prevailing minimum wages to the workers affected. Under this legislation labor standards were established for the first time in plants manufacturing materials and supplies for the Government, including clothing, shoes, cement, fertilizers, and paper and paper products.

The Walsh-Healey Act became effective in 1936. The National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933 (which provided for the establishment of codes fixing minimum labor standards) had been declared unconstitutional in 1935 and the Fair Labor Standards Act <sup>2</sup> (affording

<sup>1</sup> This article is based on publications of the Public Contracts Division and on information furnished to the Bureau of Labor Statistics by that Division.

<sup>2</sup> For a discussion of the Fair Labor Standards Act, see the Monthly Labor Review for September 1940.



protection to workers engaged in interstate commerce or in the production of goods for interstate commerce) was not adopted until 1938.

Three groups profited from the passage of the Walsh-Healey law. They are the workers engaged directly in the performance of work on Government contracts; other labor engaged in similar employments, since the standards for Government work tend to become general; and employers who customarily maintain equitable standards and who formerly were adversely affected by the competition of firms observing lower working standards. The provisions of the Walsh-Healey Act make for fairer competition than previously existed under the system of competitive bidding, when orders went to the lowest bidder regardless of the terms of employment of his force. Before it was required that the employer obtaining a Government order should observe fixed labor requirements, the firms presenting the lowest bids were often not those that should, in fairness to employees, have been successful bidders. Each cut in the price quotation to the Government was likely to entail a reduction in the wage rate to the workers engaged in producing the goods. It was also common for the person who secured the contract to sublet it. Both of these evils are now eliminated, but there is considerable evidence that the minimum wage and other requirements have not increased the price paid by the Government.<sup>3</sup>

### *Early Legislation*

The earliest laws dealing with the control of hours fixed a maximum basic workday of 8 hours on public works but did not limit the work-week or deal with rates of pay. In 1892, Congress, in establishing wage and hour standards for Government employees, stipulated also that 8 hours should be the maximum for laborers and mechanics engaged in public works, regardless of whether the Federal Government or a private contractor was the employer. This law was followed by one adopted in 1911 providing that contracts for the construction and machinery of battleships and torpedo boats should be awarded only to firms which established an 8-hour day. The following year the 8-hour daily limit (with certain express exemptions) was prescribed for laborers and mechanics engaged in the performance of contracts. The 8-hour public works law of 1892 was extended to laborers and mechanics engaged in dredging or rock excavation in any river or harbor of the United States, by legislation enacted in 1913.

In 1931 Congress for the first time exercised its authority to fix wage standards for employees engaged on Government contracts. The Bacon-Davis Act of that year stipulated that every contract in excess of \$5,000 for the construction, alteration, and repair of any

<sup>3</sup> This statement is based on studies in the apparel trades, made by the Division of Public Contracts, comparing prices paid for identical orders.



public building of the United States was to specify that the prevailing rates of wages should be paid to workers so engaged. The prevailing wage was defined as the rate of pay determined by the Secretary of Labor, for work of similar nature in the locality in which the public buildings were situated. Later, in 1935, coverage was extended to employees engaged in the performance of contracts in excess of \$2,000 for the construction, alteration, and repair of public buildings and public works.

In 1933 extraordinary powers were vested in the Administrator of the public-works provisions of the National Industry Recovery Act, who exercised them in establishing the working conditions of those employed.

### *Results of Operations*

Some of the important results of operations under the Walsh-Healey Act during approximately 4 years are shown below. In the period from September 28, 1936, to August 31, 1940, contracts to a total of \$2,138,170,264 were let, representing 27,013 awards. About 95 percent of the value of contracts was for purchases by the executive departments, including the Navy and War Departments, and the remaining 5 percent consisted of contracts for independent establishments, such as the Tennessee Valley Authority. The industries affected by agreements to comply with the terms of the Walsh-Healey law in supplying goods are shown below with the percent of total value of contracts obtained in each case. About 39 percent of the value of contracts was for transportation equipment alone, followed by textiles and their products, representing nearly 11 percent.

	<i>Value of contracts as percent of total</i>
Transportation equipment.....	38. 65
Textiles and their products.....	10. 79
Iron and steel products.....	8. 93
Asphalt, coal, and petroleum products.....	8. 80
Other machinery.....	7. 06
Electrical apparatus.....	5. 81
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	3. 74
Chemicals and allied products.....	3. 04
Nonferrous metals and alloys.....	2. 24
Paper and allied products.....	1. 90
Food and kindred products.....	1. 86
Forest products.....	1. 59
Leather and its manufactures.....	1. 15
Rubber products.....	. 80
Printing and publishing.....	. 08
Tobacco manufactures.....	. 07
Miscellaneous.....	3. 49
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>100. 00</b>

In the 4 years of operations ending August 31, 1940, 27,013 contracts were awarded and approximately 11,109 contracts were investigated. For the 12,621 individual investigations on the 11,109 contracts, full compliance was found in 57.52 percent. Monetary adjustments were necessary in 28.90 percent of the total. For the remaining 13.58 percent consisting of nonmonetary violations, that is inadequate records, unsafe and unsanitary working conditions, and failure to post stipulations in a plant, the contractors were notified of their violations by the Division of Public Contracts. During the 4-year period no court action was taken challenging enforcement activities or proceedings.

It is difficult to estimate the effect which the 31 wage determinations have had on wage earners in these industries, as the extent of Government purchases, general economic conditions, and the ability of plants to maintain separate wage scales, one for Government work and one for commercial work simultaneously, are indeterminate factors. It can be said, however, that the industries covered by wage determinations, with an estimated employment of 872,300—iron and steel, vitreous or vitrified china, flint glass, woolen carpets and rugs, tags, aircraft, soap, photographic supplies, paper and pulp, and cement—are paying to their workers at the present time, in some cases to 100 percent of the employees and in all others at least 90 percent, a wage equal to or higher than the minimum-wage determination under the Public Contracts Act. Some of these industries, such as aircraft and iron and steel where more than 10 percent of the employees were receiving a wage lower than the minimum wage required under the act, have raised all their employees to the Government rate because of the importance of Government business and the impossibility of maintaining two wage scales simultaneously. In other industries, such as tags and china, the majority of employers already were paying a rate equal to that adopted as the prevailing minimum wage, and in these cases the effect of the act has been to protect this rate from wage cuts as well as to raise the wages in that fraction of the industry which was not paying the prevailing wage prior to the wage determination.

The hourly prevailing minimum wages range as high as 70 cents an hour in one geographic division of the cement industry, 67½ cents in the men's hat and cap industry, and 62½ cents in one area of the iron and steel industry. For various other clothing industries the determinations established rates of 32½ to 50 cents an hour. The chief provisions of these determinations, including amendments and extensions up to August 31, 1940, are given in the following tabular statement.

## Analysis of Minimum-Wage Determinations of Secretary of Labor Pursuant to Public Contracts Act of June 30, 1936

Industry and effective date	Commodities included	Minimum-wage determination	Special tolerances	Miscellaneous notes
Men's work clothing--- (Feb. 9, 1937.)	Overalls, unionalls, service uniforms, work pants and work coats made of khaki, denim, drills, twills, cottonades, ducks, corduroys, or other fabrics in whole or in part of cotton.	37½ cents an hour; \$15 a week (40 hours). No differentials.	No tolerances.	Decision was superseded by Secretary's decision for cotton garments and allied industries, and applies only to Government contracts for men's work clothing upon which invitations to bid were issued on or after Feb. 9, 1937, and before Aug. 2, 1937.
Cotton garments and allied industries. (Aug. 2, 1937.)	Men's and youths' trousers and knickers (except those made wholly of wool); shirts and nightwear (including flannel); men's and youths' work shirts; men's, youths', and boys' sleeping garments; overalls; overall jackets, and 1-piece overall suits; work pants and breeches (except those made wholly of wool); work and other short coats; windbreakers and lumberjackets (excluding mackinaws <sup>1</sup> and leather and sheeplined coats); oiled waterproof cotton outergarments; men's and youths' wash suits; washable service apparel (hospital, professional, etc.); blanket-lined and similar coats; other cotton outerwear, men's, youths'.	37½ cents an hour; \$15 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.	Tolerance: 20 percent of all employees in establishment; 10 percent for learners on pay roll when performance was started. \$8 a week, first 4 weeks; \$10 a week, second 4 weeks; \$12 a week, third 4 weeks; \$15 a week thereafter. 10 percent for aged and handicapped. Wages to be not less than piece rates paid other workers in same establishment. (Temporary until further study is made).	Large number of garment industries are included under 1 industrial grouping because of technical similarity and personnel interrelationship. Collective agreements are similar in these industries. Prevailing minimum wages, as set, are wages paid unskilled workers in unionized plants.
Amendment 1 (Feb. 14, 1938.)	Barrack bags (as described in War Department Specifications No. 6-245); and bandoleers (as described in War Department Specifications No. 50-1-13-A).	Same as for cotton garments.	Same as for cotton garments.	Secretary's decision of July 28, 1937, in matter of prevailing minimum wages in cotton garment and allied industries was extended by Secretary on Jan. 29, 1938, to include bandoleers and barrack bags.
Amendment 2 (May 13, 1938. <sup>2</sup> )	Original cotton garments decision applies to all wool and wool-lined jackets whether or not such jackets be properly described as windbreakers, lumberjackets, or blanket-lined or similar coats, or as work and other short coats, or by other designation; but does not apply to leather and sheep-lined jackets.	do	do	Amendment makes cotton garment and allied industries decision operative not only over those wool and wool-lined jackets specified in it but over all types of wool and wool-lined jackets or mackinaws, however described, excluding leather and sheep-lined jackets.

<sup>1</sup> See amendment 2, cotton garments and allied industries.<sup>2</sup> Cotton garments determination, effective Aug. 2, 1937, shall continue in effect as to such wool and wool-lined jackets as were designated in that determination.



## Analysis of Minimum-Wage Determinations of Secretary of Labor Pursuant to Public Contracts Act of June 30, 1936—Continued

Industry and effective date	Commodities included	Minimum-wage determination	Special tolerances	Miscellaneous notes
Leather and sheep-lined jackets. (May 13, 1938.)	Leather and sheep-lined jackets	42½ cents an hour; \$17 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.	No tolerances.	Minimum wages based on survey by Women's Bureau covering busy week in fall of 1937. Survey also included wool and wool-lined jackets. <sup>1</sup>
Work gloves (Aug. 2, 1937.)	Leather work gloves, leather-palm work gloves, all canvas or cotton flannel gloves, knit gloves, woolen knit-lined and officers' white cotton gloves.	35 cents an hour; \$14 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.	Tolerance: 10 percent of all employees in establishment for workers who are in fact learners, handicapped, or superannuated. 25 cents an hour; \$10 a week (40 hours). Wages to be not less than piece rates paid other workers in same establishment. (Temporary until further study is made.)	Minimum wages based both on concentration of all workers and average wages of low-paid workers.
Seamless hosiery. (Aug. 2, 1937.)	Seamless hosiery	35 cents an hour; \$14 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.	Tolerance: 5 percent of all employees in establishment for workers who are in fact learners, handicapped, or superannuated. 28 cents an hour; \$11.20 a week (40 hours). Wages to be not less than piece rates paid other workers in same establishment. (Temporary until further study is made.)	Minimum wages based both upon concentration of all workers and average wages for lowest-paid occupations, including trimming, inspecting, mending, pairing, folding, stamping, ticketing, and boxing.
Men's neck wear. (Aug. 2, 1937.)	All but knitted neck wear	50 cents an hour; \$20 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.	Tolerance: 10 percent of all employees in establishment for workers who are in fact learners, handicapped, or superannuated, exclusive of boxers and trimmers who are in effect learners assigned to certain unskilled productive tasks. Additional tolerance for boxers and trimmers (tolerance not specified). 37½ cents an hour; \$15 a week (40 hours). Wages to be not less than piece rates in same occupational classifications. (Temporary until further study is made.)	Approximately 60 percent of industry is governed by collective agreements, resulting in higher wages in this than in other garment industries under consideration. Minimum wages established for public contracts are minimum wages prevailing in these agreements.

Minimum wages based both on concentration of all workers and average wages of low-paid workers.

Tolerance: 10 percent of all employees in establishment for workers who are in fact learners, handicapped, or superannuated. (Temporary until further study is made.)

40 cents an hour; \$16 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.

Vulcanized and rubberized raincoats, and men's raincoats.

Minimum wages based both on concentration of all workers and average wages of low-paid workers.

Government purchases are from uniform branch of industry rather than from civilian. About 85 percent of uniform branch is unionized and paid according to union agreements. Prevailing minimum wages established for public contracts are minimum wages prevailing in these agreements.

Minimum wages represent "the lowest wages which were received by such a substantial proportion of workers, that in relation to other minimum wages these wages are considered as having superior force, influence, and predominance."

For purposes of minimum wages, 2 branches of industry (knit and woven) are combined. Evidence presented at public hearing by representatives of labor and management and from special wage survey by Women's Bureau.

Tolerance: 10 percent of all employees in establishment for workers who are in fact learners, handicapped, or superannuated.  
25 cents an hour; \$10 a week (40 hours).

Wages to be not less than piece rates paid other workers in same establishment.  
(Temporary until further study is made.)

Tolerance: Not more than 20 percent of employees in any one factory for auxiliary workers (not including cutters or workers in cutting room, machine workers, or workers on any kind of machine, blockers, pressers, or hand sewers).

37½ cents an hour; \$15 a week (40 hours).

Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis.

No tolerances.

Tolerance: 10 percent of all employees in establishment for workers who are in fact aged and handicapped. Learners are not used on Government work.

25 cents an hour; \$10 a week (40 hours).

Wages to be not less than piece rates paid other workers in same establishment.

(Temporary until further study is made.)

40 cents an hour; \$16 a week (40 hours).  
Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis.  
No differentials.

67½ cents an hour; \$27 a week (40 hours).  
Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis.  
No differentials.

40 cents an hour; \$16 a week (40 hours).  
Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis.  
No differentials.

North (All States, including District of Columbia, except those listed below for South):  
35 cents an hour; \$14 a week (40 hours).

South—Virginia, Tennessee, Georgia, North Carolina, Florida, South Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Louisiana, Texas, Oklahoma:  
32½ cents an hour; \$13 a week (40 hours).

Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis.

Vulcanized and rubberized raincoats, and raincoats made from material known under the registered trademark of "Cravanotte" or from fabric chemically or otherwise treated so as to render it water-resistant (except oiled cotton).

Men's stitched cloth hats (including men's white sailor hats), men's fur-felt hats, and uniform caps of various styles.

Men's welt shoes.

Knit and woven underwear.

Men's raincoats.  
(Aug. 2, 1937; amended Sept. 18, 1939.)

Men's hats and caps.  
(Aug. 2, 1937.)

Men's welt shoes.  
(Jan. 5, 1938.)

Men's underwear.  
(Aug. 2, 1937.)

<sup>1</sup> See amendment 2, cotton garments and allied industries.

<sup>2</sup> Tolerance for auxiliary workers effective Feb. 11, 1938.

## Analysis of Minimum-Wage Determinations of Secretary of Labor Pursuant to Public Contracts Act of June 30, 1936—Continued

Industry and effective date	Commodities included	Minimum-wage determination	Special tolerances	Miscellaneous notes
Dimension granite. (Jan. 15, 1938.)	Dimension granite, including monumental stone, building stone, paving blocks, curbing, riprap, and rubble (excluding crushed stone).	(1) Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York: \$23 a week (40 hours). (2) Pennsylvania, Maryland, Wisconsin, Minnesota, South Dakota, all other States not included in (1) and (3): 42½ cents an hour; \$17 a week (40 hours). (3) North Carolina, Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Tennessee, Kentucky, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, Texas: 32½ cents an hour; \$13 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials. 42½ cents an hour; \$17 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.	No tolerances	Minimum wages based on field survey by Bureau of Labor Statistics.
Handkerchief. (Jan. 26, 1938.)	Handkerchiefs	Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.	do	Minimum wages based on a concentration of 57 percent of employees between 30 and 40 cents.
Envelope. (May 12, 1938.)	Envelopes	Minimum wages based on survey by Envelope Manufacturers' Association of America of wages in October 1937. Survey covered 55 percent of manufacturers, located in 22 States, producing 75 percent of total output.	do	Minimum wages based on wages of largest and lowest paid occupational group as provided in union agreements, which cover most of industry.
Vitreous or vitrified china. (May 19, 1938.)	Vitreous or vitrified china, excluding semivitreous or semivitrified china.	42¾ cents an hour; \$17.10 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at either on a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.	do	Minimum wages based on wages of largest and lowest paid occupational group as provided in union agreements, which cover most of industry.

Minimum wages based on concentration of workers in

do

42½ cents an hour; \$17 a week (40 hours)

Such types of glassware as illuminating table

do



Minimum wages based on concentration of workers in lower wage brackets. Geographic compactness and extensive collective bargaining exert influence toward uniformity throughout entire industry.

Minimum wages for luggage industry based on minimum rates established by union wage agreements which cover varying with locality, from approximately 75 to 95 percent of employees in industry. Wage data for saddle industry insufficient for making a wage determination affecting products other than mail satchels or pouches.

Minimum wages based on high proportion of workers employed in plants having union agreements providing for a minimum hourly wage of 40 cents. Minimum wages based on field survey by Bureau of Labor Statistics.

95 percent of industry, by volume, has signed "Tag Industry Agreement," which provides for minimum wage of 33 cents an hour. The Tag Institute presented wage survey covering practically all employees in industry as of March 1938.

42½ cents an hour; \$17 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.

(1) Northeast and far West—Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland, Delaware, Washington, Oregon, California, Idaho, Nevada, Arizona, Montana, Wyoming, Utah, Colorado, New Mexico: 40 cents an hour; \$16 a week (40 hours).

(2) The remaining 26 States and the District of Columbia: 37½ cents an hour; \$15 a week (40 hours).

Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. 40 cents an hour; \$16 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.

(1) Commercial fireworks division: 31¼ cents an hour; \$12.50 a week (40 hours).

(2) Fusee division: 37½ cents an hour; \$15 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.

33 cents an hour; \$13.20 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.

Such types of glassware as illuminating table glassware, all thin blown glass, thermos bottles, chemical and laboratory ware, perfumery ware, stoppers and bottles, and the like, which character of glassware is produced by the pressed, pressed and blown, offhand and blown method, cutting and polishing; in fact, all types of glassware other than window, plate and rolled glass, common bottles, containers, and prescription glassware.

**Luggage.**—Trunks, suitcases, bags, brief cases, hat boxes and related products, regardless of the material from which they are made. Carrier's tie straps and leather pouches (consisting of a leather pouch or packet of holster type with belt loop used for carrying pliers and knife). **Saddlery.**—Includes only mail satchels or pouches.

Wool carpets and rugs (exclusive of rag rugs).

(1) *Commercial fireworks division.*—Commercial fireworks (but not including assembly of fireworks exhibitions and actual display of fireworks).

(2) *Fusee division.*—Fusees, flares, and ship and railroad torpedoes (but not including safety fuses and squibs).

Shipping and system tags, merchandise and marking tags, pin tags.

Flint glass.  
(July 12, 1938.)

Luggage and saddlery.  
(July 27, 1938;  
amended Oct. 11,  
1939.)

Wool carpet and rug.  
(Oct. 15, 1938.)

Fireworks.  
(Oct. 15, 1938.)

Tag.  
(Oct. 31, 1938.)

## Analysis of Minimum-Wage Determinations of Secretary of Labor Pursuant to Public Contracts Act of June 30, 1936—Continued

Industry and effective date	Commodities included	Minimum-wage determination	Special tolerances	Miscellaneous notes
Iron and steel (Mar. 1, 1939.)	Axles, rolled or forged; bale ties, single loop; bars, alloy steel, hot rolled; bars, cold finished, carbon and alloy; bars, concrete reinforcing, straight lengths; bars, ingots, blooms and billets, iron; bars, merchant steel; bars, tool steel; ferromanganese and and spiegeleisen; girder rails and splice bars therefor; ingots, blooms, billets and slabs, alloy; ingots, blooms, billets and slabs, carbon; light rails, 60 pounds or less per yard, and splice bars and angle bars therefor; standard tee rails of more than 60 pounds per yard, and angle bars and rail joints therefor, or any of such products; mechanical tubing; pig iron, foundry, high silicon silvery, malleable, open hearth basic, Bessemer and high silicon Bessemer; pig iron, low phosphorus; pipe, standard; line pipe and oil country tubular products; plates; posts, fence and sign; railroad tie plates; railroad track spikes; sheet bars; sheets; skelp; steel sheet piling; strip steel, cold rolled; strip steel, hot rolled; structural shapes; tubes, boiler; tube rounds; wheels, car, rolled steel; wire, drawn; wire hoops, twisted or welded; wire nails and staples; twisted barless wire; barbed wire; twisted wire fence stays and wire fencing (except chain-link fencing); wire rods; wire, spring; wire, telephone.	(1) Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia (except the counties of Brooke, Hancock, Harrison, Marshall, Monongalia, and Ohio): 45 cents an hour; \$18 a week (40 hours). (2) Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming: 60 cents an hour; \$24 a week (40 hours). (3) Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, and the area in and about East St. Louis, Ill.: 58½ cents an hour; \$23.40 a week (40 hours). (4) Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Illinois (except the area in and about East St. Louis, Ill.), Indiana, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, Wisconsin, and that portion of the State of West Virginia comprised within the counties of Brooke, Hancock, Harrison, Marshall, Monongalia and Ohio: 62¼ cents an hour; \$25 a week (40 hours). 50 cents an hour; \$20 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.	Apprentices may be employed at lower rates if their employment conforms to the standards of the Federal Committee on Apprenticeship.	
Airplane (Dec. 29, 1938.)	Airplanes, including military and large transport aircraft, and aircraft engines, propellers, and parts. (The following commodities are specifically excluded: light or commercial aircraft; engines, propellers, and parts for light or commercial aircraft; parachutes; instruments; accessories and radios.)		Apprentices may be employed at less than the minimum wage provided their employment conforms to the standards of the Federal Committee on Apprenticeship.	

Bobbinet (Feb. 13, 1939.)	Bobbinets.....	37½ cents an hour; \$15 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.	No tolerances.....	Minimum wage based on lowest significant wage con- centration of stemmers, who form low-wage occu- pational group of industry. Wage data, covering about nine-tenths of all workers in industry, voluntarily supplied by industry mem- bers.
Tobacco (May 2, 1939.)	Cigarettes, chewing and smoking tobacco, snuff (cigars are specifically excluded).	32½ cents an hour; \$13 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.	do.....	Minimum wages based on field survey by Bureau of Labor Statistics. Further study to be made of wages in manufacture of uphol- stered household furniture.
Furniture (May 13, 1939.)	<p><i>Wood furniture branch</i> is defined as that in- dustry whose products include living room, library, bedroom, dining room, kit- chen, hall, and office furniture (uphol- stered or unupholstered); chairs (uphol- stered or unupholstered); desks and tables for other uses not specifically excepted herefrom; parlor frames, chairs in the white, furniture parts of wood (i. e., wood parts for furniture where the process of manufacture has advanced so far that the product can be used only in the production of furniture, but not hardwood dimension stock or plywood), and other unfinished household furniture. Studio couches; household furniture made of metal, fiber, rattan, reed, and willow; store and lunch- room furniture and fixtures; furniture for professional uses in laboratories, hospitals, barber shops, and beauty parlors, as well as such specialized products as porch, camp, and juvenile furniture, are excluded from the definition of the wood furniture manufacturing industry.</p>	<p>(1) Wood furniture branch:</p> <p>a. Virginia, Kentucky, North Car- olina, Georgia, South Carolina, Florida, Alabama, Tennessee, Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, Texas, and Mississippi: 30 cents an hour; \$12 a week (40 hours).</p> <p>b. California, Washington, and Ore- gon: 50 cents an hour; \$20 a week (40 hours).</p> <p>c. All other States and the District of Columbia: 35 cents an hour; \$14 a week (40 hours).</p>	do.....	



## Analysis of Minimum-Wage Determinations of Secretary of Labor Pursuant to Public Contracts Act of June 30, 1936—Continued

Industry and effective date	Commodities included	Minimum-wage determination	Special tolerances	Miscellaneous notes
Furniture—Cont'd. (May 13, 1939.)	<p><i>Public seating branch</i> is defined to be that industry which fabricates, assembles, and installs (by those who fabricate or assemble) public seating (upholstered or upholstered), fabricated or assembled of wood, plywood, iron, steel, nonferrous metals, or any combinations of these materials, and consisting of the following: Fixed or connected seating for such public places as theaters, auditoriums, lodges, assembly halls, shoe stores, rinks, ball parks, race tracks, stadia, and other similar buildings and structures; pewing, chancel, choir stalls, and related furniture and accessories for ecclesiastical purposes; seats and benches for courthouses, hospitals, public waiting rooms, and for other similar public purposes; pupils' desks, pupils' tables, pupils' chairs, and school furniture for all educational purposes; portable chairs with folding seats in both single and multiple units, and portable folding seating in single units for other than household use. Tablet armchairs and school chairs, fabricated and/or assembled exclusively of wood, are specifically excluded.</p> <p><i>Metal furniture branch</i> is defined to be that industry whose products include metal office furniture (vertical filing cabinets, horizontal sections and half-sections, and bookcases, Hi-line and book-shelf units, card-index cases, transfer units, desks, tables, chairs, and storage cabinets and wardrobes); metal hospital furniture; metal household furniture; steel shelving (industrial and general-purpose steel shelving, miscellaneous fittings, attachments, and accessories); steel lockers (box lockers, single-tier lockers, double-tier lockers, 2-person and compartment lockers, and miscellaneous fittings as used in schools, clubs, gymnasiums, commercial, and industrial establishments); and visible filing equipment (cabinets and panels).</p>	<p>(2) Public seating branch: 37½ cents an hour; \$15 a week (40 hours). No differentials.</p>	No tolerances.....	
		<p>(3) Metal furniture branch: 45 cents an hour; \$18 a week (40 hours). No differentials. Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis.</p>		

Drug and medicine. (Aug. 3, 1939.)	Drugs (excluding industrial chemicals), medicinal specialties, and pharmaceuticals.	37½ cents an hour; \$15 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.	do.	Earnings of employees in finishing departments—in general the lower-paid employees of the industry—were considered in making this determination. Wage data obtained from survey made by Women's Bureau. Survey of industry furnished by Specialty Accounting Supply Manufacturers' Association.
Specialty accounting supply manufacturing. (Aug. 9, 1939.)	Specialty accounting supplies, including continuous form stationery, manifold sets, autographic registers, and salesbooks.	40 cents an hour; \$16 a week (40 hours).... Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.	Apprentices may be employed at lower rates if their employment conforms with the standards of the Federal Committee on Apprenticeship. No tolerances.	Survey made by Bureau of Labor Statistics and included approximately 50 percent of all wage earners in industry.
Soap. (Aug. 14, 1939.)	Soap in bars, cakes, chips, and flakes, and in granulated, powdered, paste, and liquid form, and glycerin; cleansers containing soap, scouring powders, and shaving soaps, and creams containing soap; and washing compounds containing soap.	do.	do.	Survey made by Bureau of Labor Statistics and included approximately 50 percent of all wage earners in industry.
Photographic supplies. (Aug. 14, 1939.)	Cameras, including motion-picture cameras (except 35 millimeter); photostat and blueprint machines; tripods, film rewinders and reels, shutters, and other photographic accessories (except 35 millimeter); such equipment as flashlight apparatus, plate holders, developing apparatus; supplies such as films, photographic paper, and plates; and projectors of all types (except 35 millimeter). <sup>4</sup>	do.	Learners, to the extent of 5 percent of number of workers in establishment, may be employed for a period not to exceed 60 days at— 32 cents an hour; \$12.80 a week (40 hours).	Wage survey, covering more than 75 percent of all production employees, made by committee of industry.
Fertilizer. (Sept. 12, 1939; amended Apr. 19, 1940.)	Superphosphates; concentrated superphosphates; and mixed fertilizers (mixtures of superphosphates, potash, and ammoniates).	(1) New Mexico, Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, Idaho, Utah, Arizona, Nevada, California, Oregon, and Washington: 50 cents an hour; \$20 a week (40 hours). (2) Virginia, Tennessee, Kentucky, the Eastern Shore of Maryland (consisting of Cecil, Kent, Queen Annes, Talbot, Caroline, Dorchester, Wicomico, Worcester, and Somerset Counties), and Kent and Sussex Counties of Delaware: 30 cents an hour; \$12 a week (40 hours). (3) North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, Oklahoma, and Texas: 30 cents an hour; \$12 a week (40 hours). (4) The District of Columbia and all other States or counties not enumerated in (1), (2), and (3) above: 40 cents an hour; \$16 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis.	No tolerances.	Wage data furnished by Bureau of Labor Statistics' survey of fertilizer industry.

<sup>4</sup> Effective Oct. 11, 1940, the determination was extended to cover the manufacture of blueprint, brownprint, blackprint, black-line, and other similarly sensitized papers and cloths.

## Analysis of Minimum-Wage Determinations of Secretary of Labor Pursuant to Public Contracts Act of June 30, 1936—Continued

Industry and effective date	Commodities included	Minimum-wage determination	Special tolerances	Miscellaneous notes
Paper and pulp. (Oct. 15, 1939.)	Pulp and other fiber; paper and paperboard and the following converted paper products: Toilet paper and paper towels, coated book paper, and paper shipping sacks.	(1) California, Oregon, and Washington: 50 cents an hour; \$20 a week (40 hours). (2) Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Tennessee, Kentucky, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, Oklahoma, and Texas: 35 cents an hour; \$14 a week (40 hours). (3) The District of Columbia and all other States not enumerated in (1) and (2) above: 39 cents an hour; \$15.60 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. Small arms ammunition: 42½ cents an hour; \$17 a week (40 hours).	No tolerances.	Wage data furnished largely by survey of American Paper & Pulp Association, prepared as of October 1938.
Small arms ammunition, explosives and related products. (Oct. 19, 1939.)	Small arms ammunition.—Ammunition and parts thereof for small arms, and such related products as saluting primers and aircraft engine starters. Blasting caps.—Blasting and detonating caps. Explosives.—Explosives, including dynamite, permissible explosives (those approved by the U. S. Bureau of Mines for use in mines where dust and gas explosions are likely to occur), nitro-glycerine, black blasting powder, pellet and fuse powder, and smokeless gun powder. Portland cements, including modified Portland cement, such as Portland masonry cement and Portland-puzzolan cement.	Blasting caps: 47½ cents an hour; \$19 a week (40 hours). Explosives: 57½ cents an hour; \$23 a week (40 hours). Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis. No differentials.	do.	Wage data obtained from field survey by Bureau of Labor Statistics as of October 1937.
Cement. (Mar. 2, 1940.)		(1) Pennsylvania, New York, New Jersey, Maryland, West Virginia, Ohio, Delaware, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Vermont, New Hampshire, and the District of Columbia: 57 cents an hour; \$22.80 a week (40 hours). (2) Maine: 50 cents an hour; \$20 a week (40 hours). (3) Michigan, Indiana, and Kentucky: 50 cents an hour; \$20 a week (40 hours).	do.	Wage data covering principal cement plants of United States were prepared and presented by industry committee.

(4) Minnesota: 63½ cents an hour; \$25.40 a week (40 hours).  
(5) Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, and



- (4) Illinois:  
63½ cents an hour; \$25.40 a week (40 hours).
- (5) Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, and Missouri:  
55 cents an hour; \$22 a week (40 hours).
- (6) South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, and North Dakota:  
50 cents an hour; \$20 a week (40 hours).
- (7) Colorado, Wyoming, Utah, Montana, Idaho, Oregon, Nevada, Arizona, and New Mexico:  
55 cents an hour; \$22 a week (40 hours).
- (8) Washington:  
70 cents an hour; \$28 a week (40 hours).
- (9) California:  
62½ cents an hour; \$25 a week (40 hours).
- (10) Oklahoma and Texas:  
47 cents an hour; \$18.80 a week (40 hours).
- (11) Arkansas, Louisiana, Alabama, Tennessee, Virginia, Georgia, Florida, Mississippi, North Carolina, and South Carolina:  
40 cents an hour; \$16 a week (40 hours).

Wages may be arrived at on either a time or piece-work basis.

\* However, by order of Sept. 16, 1940, the determination was amended to permit the employment of apprentices at lower rates.

On August 31, 1940, wage restitutions had been made by companies with Government contracts to a total of \$343,045 to 41,082 employees. This includes payment of back wages by employers who have either willfully or through misunderstanding underpaid their employees. In addition to the sums already paid back, \$19,107 has been collected but not paid out and about \$100,000 was found due but not yet collected, making a total of approximately \$450,000.

### *Administration and Procedure*

The Division of Public Contracts was established in the United States Department of Labor to administer the Walsh-Healey law, in accordance with the provision empowering the Secretary of Labor to "appoint without regard to the provisions of the civil-service laws but subject to the Classification Act of 1923, an administrative officer, and such attorneys and experts, and shall appoint such other employees with regard to existing laws applicable to the employment and compensation of officers and employees of the United States as he may find necessary, to assist in the administration" of the act. This Division is headed by an Administrator who is responsible solely to the Secretary. A Public Contracts Board studies conditions in industry and holds hearings. It is subordinate to the Administrator in problems of policy, personnel, and legal interpretation which arise in connection with the Board's activities.

Either the Secretary of Labor or an impartial representative designated by the Secretary has the power to determine whether there have been violations of the act. It is the Secretary, likewise, who makes rules under this legislation and final determinations as to the prevailing minimum wages in individual industries which must be observed by Government contractors.

### *Violations*

Proceedings to determine whether there have been violations of the law may be initiated by the Department of Labor on its own motion or on the application or complaint of the person affected. An inspection force is kept in the field constantly to investigate complaints and to make routine visits to plants. Where possible, cases of violation are settled informally. Otherwise a formal complaint is lodged, notifying the offending party that he must submit a verified answer within 20 days. Hearings of cases are usually held near the place of employment in order that employees of the alleged violator may conveniently appear to testify and the records of the firm may be easily accessible. Both trial examiners and attorneys are members of the Division's legal staff. Attendance and testimony of witnesses and the production of evidence may be compelled by subpoena.

Reports of hearings are submitted to the Administrator. Opportunity is afforded for filing exceptions. When the Administrator issues a decision it has the effect of a final order of the Department of Labor in

the absence of appeal to the Secretary. A covering letter accompanies the decision in which it is stated that any affected party may within 10 days petition for review by the Secretary. In actual experience such appeals have seldom been filed.

### *Regulations and Determinations*

Under the statute the Secretary of Labor is authorized "from time to time to make, amend, and rescind such rules and regulations as may be necessary to carry out the provisions"; to "provide reasonable limitations"; and to "make rules and regulations allowing reasonable variations, tolerances, and exemptions to and from any or all provisions \* \* \* respecting minimum rates of pay and maximum hours of labor \* \* \*." The procedure for promulgating regulations is not prescribed. When the need for a regulation or amendment comes to the attention of the Administrator or a member of the staff, it is discussed at a staff conference and a draft proposal is prepared by the legal staff, but any ruling is promulgated at the discretion of the Secretary.

The first series of regulations issued on September 14, 1936, provided that, with certain exceptions indicated in the act, specifications for every contract over \$10,000 should have inserted the stipulations set out in the first section of the act. (This section includes the labor provisions.) It was also in these regulations that the Secretary, under authority granted by the terms of the law, fixed the overtime rate of pay for hours worked in excess of 8 per day and 40 per week at one and one-half times the basic hourly rate or piece rate received by the employee, until otherwise ordered.

Other regulations establish the procedure to be followed by contracting officers and bidders in applying for exceptions and exemptions, in reporting awards of contracts, and in notifying the appropriate agencies of complaints of violations. The regulations follow the policy of the law itself, namely, of leaving to the discretion of the Secretary the manner and the order in which minimum-wage determinations are to be made.

An amendment to the original text of the regulations authorized the maintenance of general records of employment covering all employees, in lieu of separate files for those engaged on Government work. This privilege is granted only on the understanding that all employees will then be deemed to be engaged in the production of the Government's purchase during the period in which the employer is fulfilling a contract with the Government. Another change was necessary, owing to the widespread attempts to evade the law through the supplying of the Government by manufacturers on the orders of regular dealers unable to fill the contract from stock on hand. Any manufacturer shipping goods direct to the Government on a dealer's order is deemed to be the principal party to the contract and subject to the act. The



dealer becomes an agent unless he furnishes the goods himself by supplying them from his own stock.

Where an employee works for any part of a day in a given pay-roll period or workweek on a Government contract in an industry for which a wage determination has been issued, he is entitled to at least the determined minimum wage for all hours worked in that pay roll or workweek.

For learners engaged on contracts in industries for which a tolerance has been included in the applicable wage determination of the Secretary, it must be demonstrated that a training period is required, and the employee may not have been an experienced operator in that industry. If a tolerance has been authorized for apprentices under a determination, a training period of not less than 4,000 hours (2 years) is contemplated. Compliance with the regulations of a State or Federal apprenticeship committee is satisfactory evidence of the existence of a bona fide apprenticeship agreement. Generally, the period of instruction of apprentices must be considered in computing hours of employment and he is entitled to overtime pay for hours in excess of the statutory basic workday and workweek just as are other employees.

The law prescribes that Government contracts in excess of \$10,000 must specify that the pay of employees working on the contracts shall be "not less than the minimum wages as determined by the Secretary of Labor to be the prevailing minimum wages for persons employed on similar work or in the particular or similar industries or groups of industries currently operating in the locality in which the materials, supplies, articles, or equipment are to be manufactured or furnished under said contract." However, contractors supplying goods covering the manufacture and supply of which the Secretary of Labor has not made a determination are not required to maintain a specified wage minimum but must observe the other labor provisions of the law during the life of the contract.

Before a determination is made by the Secretary, a great deal of preliminary work is necessary. In establishing a definition of industrial coverage for each such determination, the Administrator and his staff consult other divisions of the Department of Labor and representatives of industry. The Public Contracts Board holds public hearings, takes testimony, and publishes its findings and recommendations. Interested parties are given an opportunity to file exceptions to the wage proposals. The final determination of the prevailing minimum wage is made by the Secretary of Labor and may be revised from time to time.

Applications for exceptions and exemptions under the terms of the Walsh-Healey legislation are considered by the Administrator. At times he requests the Board to hear arguments and make recommendations to the Secretary of Labor regarding the validity of the claims for relief. The Secretary, of course, makes the final decision.

## ANNUAL EARNINGS IN THE IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRY, 1937<sup>1</sup>

WORKERS who were employed throughout 1937 in the iron and steel industry earned an average of \$1,773. The average annual earnings of those workers employed 9 months or more amounted to \$1,679, and those of workers employed 6 months or more to \$1,650. The average for all wage earners who worked any part of the year was \$1,628. These annual earnings reflect on the one hand the comparatively high wage level of the iron and steel industry and on the other hand the relatively stable employment in the industry in 1937.<sup>2</sup>

Annual earnings varied considerably between skill groups. For employees who worked 12 months the difference in favor of skilled over semiskilled workers amounted to \$452 for the country as a whole. Semiskilled workers' earnings exceeded those of unskilled workers by \$189. The respective skill differences in annual earnings for employees working 9 months or more were \$459 and \$180, and those for employees working any part of the year were \$470 and \$187. Table 1 shows the distribution of the iron and steel workers and their average annual earnings, by skill and period of employment.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution and Average Annual Earnings of Iron and Steel Workers, by Period of Employment and Skill, 1937*

Item and skill	Employees whose work extended over—			
	12 months	9 months or more	6 months or more	Any part of year
<b>Average annual earnings:</b>				
All workers.....	\$1, 773	\$1, 679	\$1, 650	\$1, 628
Skilled.....	\$2, 107	\$2, 023	\$2, 002	\$1, 986
Semiskilled.....	\$1, 655	\$1, 564	\$1, 538	\$1, 516
Unskilled.....	\$1, 466	\$1, 384	\$1, 351	\$1, 329
<b>Percent of workers:</b>				
All workers.....	61. 7	94. 9	98. 2	100. 0
Skilled.....	65. 5	96. 8	98. 9	100. 0
Semiskilled.....	60. 6	94. 7	98. 0	100. 0
Unskilled.....	58. 2	92. 8	97. 7	100. 0
<b>Number of workers:</b>				
All workers.....	45, 152	69, 529	71, 942	73, 228
Skilled.....	16, 330	24, 128	24, 661	24, 924
Semiskilled.....	18, 003	28, 143	29, 117	29, 710
Unskilled.....	10, 819	17, 258	18, 164	18, 594

<sup>1</sup> Prepared by Victor S. Baril, assisted by Abner C. Lakenan, of the Bureau's Division of Wage and Hour Statistics. This is the third in a series of articles on Earnings and Hours in the Iron and Steel Industry.

<sup>2</sup> It should be pointed out that 1937 average earnings were obtained only for those employees who were actually working during April 1938 in the establishments surveyed. Furthermore they include only the amounts received from the company for which they were working in April 1938. For example, if an employee earned \$600 in 1937 while working for Company A and \$800 while working for Company B, and appeared on Company B's pay roll in April 1938, only the \$800 received from Company B would be included in 1937 average earnings.

The present analysis is based on annual earnings data obtained during the course of a detailed survey of wages and hours in the iron and steel industry which was conducted by the Bureau during the spring of 1938.<sup>3</sup> Altogether 276 plants and 81,217 workers were covered in the detailed survey. The coverage on annual earnings, however, was somewhat smaller, information being obtained for 261 plants and 73,228 wage earners.<sup>4</sup>

Although the detailed survey was conducted on a sample basis, the plants covered were very carefully selected so that the sample would be representative of the industry as a whole. Such important factors as geographical distribution, corporate affiliation, size and type of plant, and unionization were taken into consideration. The annual earnings sample, although somewhat smaller, is believed to be quite representative of the industry as a whole.

The annual data obtained for each worker included the total earnings made and the total number of pay-roll periods worked during the calendar year 1937 in the establishment in which each worker was found at the time of the 1938 survey. As before stated, these data, therefore, do not in all cases represent the total earnings received from the iron and steel industry, but rather the earnings received in a single iron and steel establishment. This, however, does not appear to be a serious limitation, as 61.7 percent of the wage earners for whom annual earnings were obtained were employed in the same establishment throughout the entire year of 1937. Moreover, 94.9 percent were employed in the same establishment for 9 months or more of that year. The earnings of the former represent their total earnings in the industry for 1937. To a very large extent the same is true of the earnings of those who worked 9 months or more, because of their limited opportunities of finding employment elsewhere for the remainder of the year. The earnings of the remaining 5.1 percent, however, undoubtedly represent earnings for only part of the year, as it is likely that workers in this group found employment in other iron and steel establishments during part of the year 1937. The time and resources of the Bureau would not permit the obtaining of any additional earnings which these employees may have received.

The annual earnings of workers in any industry are to a considerable extent determined by the general wage structure of that industry. On the basis of average hourly earnings, iron and steel employees ranked among the highest-paid factory workers in 1937. The relatively high level of average hourly earnings in this industry in 1937

<sup>3</sup> See articles on Earnings and Hours in the Iron and Steel Industry, April 1938, which appear in the August and September 1940 issues of the *Monthly Labor Review*.

<sup>4</sup> Average hourly earnings data were obtained for 76,697 workers in these 261 plants.



was to some extent due to two general wage increases—one of 10 percent which was granted in November 1936 and another of 10 percent or more which was made in March 1937. The effects of these increases are reflected in the average hourly earnings, which rose from an average of 67.1 cents in 1936 to an average of 81.8 cents in 1937.<sup>5</sup>

Coupled with average hourly earnings in determining the amount of annual earnings is the level of activity in an industry. In the iron and steel industry, employment was at a high level during most of the year. Despite the sharp recession which set in late that year, the employment index for the year, using 1923–25 as a base or 100, was 123.5. The index of pay rolls for the year 1937 was 122.5. These respective indexes are the highest for any year since 1923, the earliest year for which these figures are available.

The employment opportunities which obtained in the iron and steel industry during the greater part of the year 1937 are reflected in the average number of hours worked per week. The average for the year was 38.7 hours. During the first 8 months of 1937, iron and steel employees averaged 40 hours a week or more, with the exception of July, when the average was 38.1 hours. November and December were the only months in which employees averaged less than 35 hours per week, the averages being respectively 30.7 and 27.3 hours, as indicated in table 2, based on monthly reports to the Bureau's Division of Employment Statistics.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls, and Average Hourly Earnings and Weekly Hours, in the Iron and Steel Industry, by Months, 1937*

Month	Index of employment	Index of pay rolls	Average hourly earnings	Average hours worked per week
Year.....	123.5	122.5	\$0.818	38.7
January.....	119.3	115.8	.726	42.7
February.....	121.6	118.4	.727	42.9
March.....	125.5	127.1	.748	43.5
April.....	128.8	145.3	.850	42.6
May.....	130.9	145.4	.866	41.3
June.....	114.5	123.6	.854	40.2
July.....	128.9	132.5	.858	38.1
August.....	130.5	142.3	.857	40.5
September.....	130.6	130.0	.842	37.5
October.....	126.5	119.3	.837	35.7
November.....	117.2	93.7	.828	30.7
December.....	107.8	76.6	.828	27.3

### *Annual Earnings of All Workers*

Despite the relatively high level of annual earnings indicated by the general averages, there was considerable variation in the earnings of individual workers, as may be seen from the distributions presented in table 3. Although employees who worked throughout the year

<sup>5</sup> Based on the data collected monthly by the Division of Employment Statistics of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 3.—Percentage Distribution of Iron and Steel Workers

Region and annual earnings	Percent of employees whose work extended over—							
	12 months				9 months or more			
	All work-ers	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Un-skilled	All work-ers	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Un-skilled
<i>United States</i>								
Under \$200.....	(1)		(1)		(1)		(1)	
\$200 and under \$400.....	(1)	(1)	(1)		(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
\$400 and under \$600.....	0.1			0.4	0.2		0.1	0.5
\$600 and under \$800.....	.5	0.1	0.3	1.5	1.3	0.2	1.2	2.9
\$800 and under \$1,000.....	2.6	.4	2.1	6.6	5.1	1.1	5.0	11.0
\$1,000 and under \$1,200.....	8.0	2.1	9.1	15.2	11.0	3.5	12.5	19.0
\$1,200 and under \$1,400.....	14.3	5.7	16.0	24.3	16.1	7.9	18.7	23.4
\$1,400 and under \$1,600.....	17.9	10.8	22.4	22.0	17.6	12.7	21.0	19.1
\$1,600 and under \$1,800.....	17.0	16.1	20.6	12.8	15.5	16.3	17.8	10.8
\$1,800 and under \$2,000.....	13.4	17.6	13.0	7.5	11.6	16.4	10.8	6.2
\$2,000 and under \$2,200.....	9.2	14.4	7.0	5.1	7.7	13.0	5.5	3.8
\$2,200 and under \$2,400.....	6.0	10.8	4.0	2.1	5.0	9.5	3.3	1.5
\$2,400 and under \$2,600.....	3.4	6.0	2.2	1.4	2.9	5.5	1.7	1.0
\$2,600 and under \$2,800.....	2.2	4.2	1.2	.7	1.8	3.8	1.0	.5
\$2,800 and under \$3,000.....	1.5	2.8	1.0	.2	1.2	2.6	.7	.1
\$3,000 and under \$3,200.....	.9	1.7	.5	.1	.7	1.5	.4	.1
\$3,200 and under \$3,400.....	.7	1.5	.3	.1	.6	1.4	.2	.1
\$3,400 and under \$3,600.....	.6	1.5	.1		.4	1.1	.1	
\$3,600 and under \$3,800.....	.5	1.3	.1	(1)	.4	1.0	(1)	(1)
\$3,800 and under \$4,000.....	.3	.7	(1)		.2	.6	(1)	(1)
\$4,000 and over.....	.9	2.3	.1	(1)	.7	1.9	(1)	(1)
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	45, 152	16, 330	18, 003	10, 819	69, 529	24, 128	28, 143	17, 258
<i>North</i>								
Under \$200.....					(1)		(1)	
\$200 and under \$400.....				.1	.1		.1	.2
\$400 and under \$600.....	(1)		(1)	.3	.9	(1)	.9	1.9
\$600 and under \$800.....	.1	(1)	.1	4.0	4.3	.9	4.3	9.3
\$800 and under \$1,000.....	1.4	.1	1.0	14.4	10.5	3.2	11.8	18.8
\$1,000 and under \$1,200.....	7.1	1.5	7.7	25.2	16.2	7.8	18.5	24.2
\$1,200 and under \$1,400.....	14.1	5.3	15.4	23.6	18.1	12.7	21.4	20.2
\$1,400 and under \$1,600.....	18.6	10.5	22.8	13.8	16.0	16.4	18.4	11.4
\$1,600 and under \$1,800.....	17.9	16.2	21.7	8.0	12.0	16.8	11.3	6.4
\$1,800 and under \$2,000.....	14.1	18.5	13.7	5.5	7.8	13.2	5.7	4.0
\$2,000 and under \$2,200.....	9.6	14.8	7.3	2.3	5.1	9.7	3.3	1.6
\$2,200 and under \$2,400.....	6.3	11.1	4.3	1.5	2.9	5.5	1.8	1.1
\$2,400 and under \$2,600.....	3.4	6.0	2.3	.8	1.9	3.8	1.0	.5
\$2,600 and under \$2,800.....	2.2	4.1	1.3	.2	1.2	2.6	.7	.2
\$2,800 and under \$3,000.....	1.5	2.9	1.0	.2	.7	1.5	.4	.1
\$3,000 and under \$3,200.....	.9	1.7	.6	.1	.6	1.3	.3	.1
\$3,200 and under \$3,400.....	.7	1.5	.4		.4	1.1	.1	
\$3,400 and under \$3,600.....	.6	1.5	.2		.4	1.1	.1	
\$3,600 and under \$3,800.....	.5	1.3	.1	(1)	.4	1.0	(1)	(1)
\$3,800 and under \$4,000.....	.2	.7	(1)		.2	.5	(1)	(1)
\$4,000 and over.....	.8	2.3	.1	(1)	.7	1.9	(1)	(1)
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	40, 266	14, 527	16, 096	9, 643	63, 407	21, 958	25, 771	15, 678
<i>West</i>								
Under \$200.....								
\$200 and under \$400.....								
\$400 and under \$600.....					.6		.7	1.4
\$600 and under \$800.....					.3		.3	.9
\$800 and under \$1,000.....	.8		1.2	2.0	3.9	.3	3.9	9.9
\$1,000 and under \$1,200.....	6.3	1.0	5.9	18.2	9.0	2.2	8.5	21.0
\$1,200 and under \$1,400.....	17.5	3.7	21.9	38.5	16.3	4.7	20.4	28.9
\$1,400 and under \$1,600.....	16.5	8.8	24.5	18.2	15.7	9.3	22.3	15.8
\$1,600 and under \$1,800.....	16.3	16.0	19.5	10.5	14.4	14.9	17.1	9.2
\$1,800 and under \$2,000.....	12.1	15.4	10.8	7.7	11.7	15.1	9.7	9.2
\$2,000 and under \$2,200.....	8.4	11.7	7.1	4.0	8.2	12.5	6.6	3.6
\$2,200 and under \$2,400.....	6.3	10.9	3.8	.9	5.9	10.5	4.2	1.0
\$2,400 and under \$2,600.....	4.5	8.3	2.5		4.5	8.4	3.3	
\$2,600 and under \$2,800.....	3.1	6.6	.9		3.0	6.3	1.4	

<sup>1</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

According to Annual Earnings, by Region and Skill, 1937

Percent of employees whose work extended over—								Region and annual earnings
6 months or more				Any part of the year				
All work-ers	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Un-skilled	All work-ers	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Un-skilled	
								<i>United States</i>
(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.4	Under \$200.
0.1	(1)	0.1	0.3	.8	.3	.9	1.2	\$200 and under \$400.
.8	0.2	.7	1.8	1.4	.5	1.4	2.5	\$400 and under \$600.
2.3	.7	2.3	4.4	2.5	.9	2.6	4.5	\$600 and under \$800.
5.8	1.7	5.8	11.6	5.8	1.8	5.7	11.4	\$800 and under \$1,000.
11.0	3.9	12.5	18.4	10.8	3.8	12.2	18.0	\$1,000 and under \$1,200.
15.7	8.0	18.1	22.3	15.4	7.9	17.8	21.8	\$1,200 and under \$1,400.
17.1	12.6	20.3	18.3	16.7	12.4	19.9	17.8	\$1,400 and under \$1,600.
15.0	15.9	17.2	10.3	14.7	15.7	16.8	10.1	\$1,600 and under \$1,800.
11.2	15.9	10.5	5.9	11.0	15.8	10.3	5.8	\$1,800 and under \$2,000.
7.4	12.7	5.3	3.6	7.3	12.6	5.2	3.5	\$2,000 and under \$2,200.
4.8	9.3	3.1	1.4	4.7	9.2	3.1	1.4	\$2,200 and under \$2,400.
2.8	5.4	1.7	.9	2.7	5.4	1.6	.9	\$2,400 and under \$2,600.
1.8	3.8	1.0	.5	1.8	3.7	.9	.4	\$2,600 and under \$2,800.
1.2	2.5	.7	.1	1.2	2.5	.7	.1	\$2,800 and under \$3,000.
.7	1.5	.4	.1	.7	1.5	.4	.1	\$3,000 and under \$3,200.
.6	1.3	.2	.1	.6	1.3	.2	.1	\$3,200 and under \$3,400.
.4	1.1	.1		.4	1.1	.1		\$3,400 and under \$3,600.
.4	1.0	(1)	(1)	.4	1.0	(1)	(1)	\$3,600 and under \$3,800.
.2	.6	(1)	(1)	.2	.6	(1)	(1)	\$3,800 and under \$4,000.
.7	1.9	(1)	(1)	.7	1.9	(1)	(1)	\$4,000 and over.
100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	Total.
71,942	24,661	29,117	18,164	73,228	24,924	29,710	18,594	Number of workers.
								<i>North</i>
(1)			(1)	.2	.1	.2	.3	Under \$200.
.1		.1	.2	.7	.3	.9	1.2	\$200 and under \$400.
.6	.1	.6	1.4	1.3	.5	1.4	2.1	\$400 and under \$600.
1.9	.7	2.0	3.5	2.1	.8	2.4	3.6	\$600 and under \$800.
5.1	1.5	5.1	10.1	5.1	1.6	5.0	9.9	\$800 and under \$1,000.
10.6	3.5	11.8	18.3	10.4	3.5	11.5	17.9	\$1,000 and under \$1,200.
15.8	7.9	18.0	23.2	15.5	7.8	17.6	22.5	\$1,200 and under \$1,400.
17.5	12.5	20.8	19.2	17.1	12.4	20.1	18.8	\$1,400 and under \$1,600.
15.5	16.1	17.9	10.9	15.3	16.1	17.5	10.7	\$1,600 and under \$1,800.
11.6	16.5	10.9	6.1	11.4	16.3	10.7	6.0	\$1,800 and under \$2,000.
7.6	12.9	5.5	3.8	7.5	12.7	5.4	3.7	\$2,000 and under \$2,200.
4.9	9.4	3.2	1.5	4.8	9.3	3.2	1.5	\$2,200 and under \$2,400.
2.8	5.4	1.7	1.0	2.7	5.3	1.7	1.0	\$2,400 and under \$2,600.
1.8	3.7	1.0	.5	1.8	3.7	1.0	.5	\$2,600 and under \$2,800.
1.2	2.5	.7	.1	1.2	2.5	.7	.1	\$2,800 and under \$3,000.
.7	1.5	.4	.1	.7	1.4	.4	.1	\$3,000 and under \$3,200.
.6	1.3	.2	.1	.6	1.3	.2	.1	\$3,200 and under \$3,400.
.4	1.1	.1		.4	1.1	.1		\$3,400 and under \$3,600.
.4	1.0	(1)	(1)	.4	1.0	(1)	(1)	\$3,600 and under \$3,800.
.2	.5	(1)	(1)	.2	.5	(1)	(1)	\$3,800 and under \$4,000.
.7	1.9	(1)	(1)	.6	1.8	(1)	(1)	\$4,000 and over.
100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	Total.
65,619	22,466	26,661	16,492	66,806	22,716	27,217	16,873	Number of workers.
								<i>West</i>
				.5	.2	.3	1.1	Under \$200.
.1	.1	.1	.2	.8	.4	.5	1.9	\$200 and under \$400.
.5		.5	1.3	.7	.2	.9	1.3	\$400 and under \$600.
1.6	.2	2.1	3.1	1.7	.4	2.2	3.0	\$600 and under \$800.
4.6	.8	4.7	10.4	4.5	.8	4.7	10.1	\$800 and under \$1,000.
8.9	2.3	8.7	20.1	8.8	2.3	8.5	19.5	\$1,000 and under \$1,200.
15.9	4.6	19.8	27.7	15.5	4.6	19.5	26.9	\$1,200 and under \$1,400.
15.3	9.4	21.4	15.2	15.0	9.4	21.2	14.7	\$1,400 and under \$1,600.
14.0	14.9	16.6	8.8	13.8	14.6	16.4	8.6	\$1,600 and under \$1,800.
11.4	15.0	9.4	8.8	11.2	14.6	9.2	8.6	\$1,800 and under \$2,000.
8.0	12.3	6.4	3.4	7.9	12.2	6.3	3.3	\$2,000 and under \$2,200.
5.7	10.3	4.0	11.0	5.6	10.2	4.0	1.0	\$2,200 and under \$2,400.
4.4	8.3	3.2		4.4	8.3	3.2		\$2,400 and under \$2,600.
2.9	6.2	1.3		2.9	6.2	1.3		\$2,600 and under \$2,800.



TABLE 3.—Percentage Distribution of Iron and Steel Workers

Region and annual earnings	Percent of employees whose work extended over—							
	12 months				9 months or more			
	All workers	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Unskilled	All workers	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Unskilled
<i>West—Continued</i>								
\$2,800 and under \$3,000.....	2.3	4.1	1.5	-----	2.0	3.7	1.4	-----
\$3,000 and under \$3,200.....	1.6	3.8	-----	-----	1.4	3.6	.1	-----
\$3,200 and under \$3,400.....	1.1	2.2	.3	-----	.9	2.0	.3	-----
\$3,400 and under \$3,600.....	.6	1.3	.1	-----	.5	1.2	.4	-----
\$3,600 and under \$3,800.....	.3	.8	-----	-----	.2	.6	-----	-----
\$3,800 and under \$4,000.....	.7	1.6	-----	-----	.6	1.6	-----	-----
\$4,000 and over.....	1.6	3.8	-----	-----	1.2	3.1	-----	-----
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	1,789	762	676	351	2,511	985	939	587
<i>South</i>								
Under \$200.....	(1)	-----	.1	-----	(1)	-----	.1	-----
\$200 and under \$400.....	9.1	0.3	.1	-----	.2	.3	.1	.1
\$400 and under \$600.....	1.1	-----	.6	3.0	1.7	.2	1.1	4.3
\$600 and under \$800.....	6.2	1.4	3.7	16.1	8.5	1.9	6.1	19.8
\$800 and under \$1,000.....	18.4	5.0	15.9	38.8	20.2	6.2	19.2	38.4
\$1,000 and under \$1,200.....	21.3	11.0	29.1	22.2	20.7	11.9	28.6	19.8
\$1,200 and under \$1,400.....	15.5	12.1	21.7	10.4	14.3	12.4	19.4	9.2
\$1,400 and under \$1,600.....	12.2	15.9	13.4	5.8	11.2	15.6	11.7	5.2
\$1,600 and under \$1,800.....	7.3	13.4	5.8	1.9	6.8	12.7	5.3	1.7
\$1,800 and under \$2,000.....	5.3	9.4	4.8	.7	4.9	9.2	4.3	.6
\$2,000 and under \$2,200.....	4.7	10.3	2.8	.6	4.3	9.9	2.4	.5
\$2,200 and under \$2,400.....	2.6	6.2	1.1	.4	2.4	5.9	1.0	.3
\$2,400 and under \$2,600.....	1.6	4.1	.5	-----	1.5	3.9	.5	-----
\$2,600 and under \$2,800.....	.9	2.6	.2	-----	.8	2.4	.1	-----
\$2,800 and under \$3,000.....	.5	1.3	.2	.1	.6	1.4	.1	.1
\$3,000 and under \$3,200.....	.3	1.0	-----	-----	.3	.8	-----	-----
\$3,200 and under \$3,400.....	.4	1.2	-----	-----	.3	1.0	-----	-----
\$3,400 and under \$3,600.....	.5	1.4	-----	-----	.4	1.3	-----	-----
\$3,600 and under \$3,800.....	.3	.9	-----	-----	.2	.8	-----	-----
\$3,800 and under \$4,000.....	.3	1.0	-----	-----	.3	.8	-----	-----
\$4,000 and over.....	.5	1.5	-----	-----	.4	1.4	-----	-----
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	3,097	1,041	1,231	825	3,611	1,185	1,433	993

earned an average of \$1,773 in 1937, the earnings of individuals in this group ranged from less than \$600 to over \$4,000. Within this extreme range, however, over one-third of the workers (34.9 percent) earned between \$1,400 and \$1,800, over three-fifths (62.6 percent) between \$1,200 and \$2,000, and not far from seven-eighths (85.8 percent) between \$1,000 and \$2,400. Only 3.2 percent of those who worked 12 months in 1937 earned under \$1,000, and less than 1 percent (0.6) under \$800. On the other hand, 11 percent received \$2,400 or more, and 3.9 percent \$3,000 or more.

The next most significant annual earnings are those of employees who worked 9 months or more. The average for this group of workers was \$1,679 in 1937, or \$94 less than that for workers employed

According to Annual Earnings, by Region and Skill, 1937—Continued

Percent of employees whose work extended over—								Region and annual earnings
6 months or more				Any part of the year				
All work- ers	Skilled	Semi- skilled	Un- skilled	All work- ers	Skilled	Semi- skilled	Un- skilled	
1.9	3.6	1.3	-----	1.9	3.6	1.3	-----	\$2,800 and under \$3,000.
1.4	3.5	.1	-----	1.4	3.5	.1	-----	\$3,000 and under \$3,200.
.9	2.0	.3	-----	.9	2.0	.3	-----	\$3,200 and under \$3,400.
.5	1.2	.1	-----	.5	1.2	.1	-----	\$3,400 and under \$3,600.
.2	.6	-----	-----	.2	.6	-----	-----	\$3,600 and under \$3,800.
.6	1.6	-----	-----	.6	1.6	-----	-----	\$3,800 and under \$4,000.
1.2	3.1	-----	-----	1.2	3.1	-----	-----	\$4,000 and over.
100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	Total.
2,580	996	971	613	2,620	1,005	984	631	Number of workers.
								South
.1	.1	.1	-----	.5	.2	.4	.8	Under \$200.
.5	.3	.4	.9	1.1	.3	1.0	2.2	\$200 and under \$400.
3.6	.5	2.7	8.4	4.1	.6	3.3	8.9	\$400 and under \$600.
9.1	2.2	7.1	19.6	8.9	2.2	7.0	19.0	\$600 and under \$800.
19.6	6.3	18.8	35.9	19.3	6.2	18.6	34.8	\$800 and under \$1,000.
20.0	11.9	27.7	18.6	19.8	11.9	27.3	18.1	\$1,000 and under \$1,200.
13.9	12.5	18.7	8.6	13.6	12.4	18.4	8.3	\$1,200 and under \$1,400.
10.9	15.4	11.3	4.9	10.7	15.6	11.1	4.8	\$1,400 and under \$1,600.
6.5	12.7	5.1	1.6	6.4	12.7	5.0	1.6	\$1,600 and under \$1,800.
4.7	9.1	4.1	.6	4.6	9.1	4.0	.6	\$1,800 and under \$2,000.
4.2	9.8	2.4	.5	4.1	9.7	2.3	.5	\$2,000 and under \$2,200.
2.3	5.8	.9	.3	2.3	5.8	.9	.3	\$2,200 and under \$2,400.
1.4	3.8	.5	-----	1.4	3.8	.5	-----	\$2,400 and under \$2,600.
.8	2.3	.1	-----	.8	2.3	.1	-----	\$2,600 and under \$2,800.
.5	1.4	.1	.1	.5	1.4	.1	.1	\$2,800 and under \$3,000.
.3	.8	-----	-----	.3	.8	-----	-----	\$3,000 and under \$3,200.
.3	1.0	-----	-----	.3	1.0	-----	-----	\$3,200 and under \$3,400.
.4	1.3	-----	-----	.4	1.2	-----	-----	\$3,400 and under \$3,600.
.2	.8	-----	-----	.2	.7	-----	-----	\$3,600 and under \$3,800.
.3	.8	-----	-----	.3	.8	-----	-----	\$3,800 and under \$4,000.
.4	1.2	-----	-----	.4	1.3	-----	-----	\$4,000 and over.
100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	Total.
3,743	1,199	1,485	1,059	3,802	1,203	1,509	1,090	Number of workers.

throughout the year. This difference in earnings is reflected in the respective distributions. Thus, of the employees working 9 months or more, one-third (33.7 percent) earned less than \$1,400 and two-thirds (66.3 percent) \$1,400 or more. In contrast, among workers employed throughout the year, three-fourths (74.5 percent) received \$1,400 or more and only one-fourth (25.5 percent) less than \$1,400.

Wage earners who worked 6 months or more earned an average of \$1,650, while those who worked any part of the year earned \$1,628. These averages are only \$29 and \$51, respectively, below that of wage earners employed 9 months or more. These small differences are due to the fact that only 5.1 percent of the workers were employed less than 9 months and only 1.8 percent less than 6 months.

### Variations by Skill

Average annual earnings, by skill, are shown for the groups of workers having employment for specified periods during the year, in table 4. This table indicates that only to a very limited extent are the differences in annual earnings between skill groups due to variations in the stability of employment. This may be seen from the fact that 65.5 percent of the skilled workers in April 1938 had been employed 12 months in 1937, as compared with 60.6 percent of the semiskilled, and 58.2 percent of the unskilled. Similarly, of the skilled workers 96.8 percent were employed 9 months or more and 98.9 percent 6 months or more. These percentages may be compared with percentages of 94.7 and 98.0, respectively, for semiskilled workers and percentages of 92.8 and 97.7, respectively, for unskilled workers. It would therefore appear that the variations in annual earnings between skill groups are very largely the result of skill differentials in average hourly earnings. These averages amount to 99.2 cents for skilled, 79.3 cents for semiskilled, and 68.9 cents for unskilled workers.

TABLE 4.—Average Annual Earnings of Iron and Steel Workers, by Skill and Region, 1937

Skill	Employees whose work extended over—											
	12 months			9 months or more			6 months or more			Any part of the year		
	North	West	South	North	West	South	North	West	South	North	West	South
Average annual earnings												
All workers.....	\$1,799	\$1,865	\$1,385	\$1,094	\$1,794	\$1,337	\$1,665	\$1,766	\$1,310	\$1,643	\$1,743	\$1,294
Skilled.....	2,120	2,267	1,810	2,028	2,214	1,764	2,006	2,200	1,752	1,990	2,184	1,747
Semiskilled.....	1,684	1,646	1,271	1,581	1,619	1,227	1,555	1,590	1,205	1,532	1,574	1,192
Unskilled.....	1,506	1,414	1,018	1,410	1,367	984	1,377	1,338	955	1,355	1,306	936
Percent of workers												
All workers.....	60.3	68.3	81.5	94.9	95.8	95.0	98.2	98.5	98.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Skilled.....	64.0	75.8	86.5	96.7	98.0	98.5	98.9	99.1	99.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Semiskilled.....	59.1	68.7	81.6	94.7	95.4	95.0	98.0	98.7	98.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unskilled.....	57.2	55.6	75.7	92.9	93.0	91.1	97.7	97.1	97.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers												
All workers.....	40,266	1,789	3,097	63,407	2,511	3,611	65,619	2,580	3,743	66,806	2,620	3,802
Skilled.....	14,527	762	1,041	21,958	985	1,185	22,466	996	1,199	22,716	1,005	1,203
Semiskilled.....	16,096	676	1,231	25,771	939	1,433	26,661	971	1,485	27,217	984	1,509
Unskilled.....	9,643	351	825	15,678	587	993	16,492	613	1,059	16,873	631	1,090



### *Geographical Differences*

Annual earnings varied between regions.<sup>6</sup> In western plants workers employed throughout the year earned an average of \$1,865 or \$66 more than the average of \$1,799 in northern plants. The average for workers in southern plants amounted to \$1,385, which is nearly \$500 less than the western average and approximately \$400 below the northern average. For employees who worked 9 months or more, the difference in favor of the West over the North amounted to \$100 and that in favor of the North over the South to \$357. The averages were \$1,794, \$1,694, and \$1,337, respectively.

In each skill group the average annual earnings of southern workers were substantially lower than those of northern and western workers. The situation was somewhat mixed, however, with respect to the averages of each skill group in the West and the North. Thus, although skilled workers in the West earned more than similar workers in the North, the opposite was true of unskilled workers.

Of the three regions, the North had the smallest relative number of workers employed throughout the year and the South the largest, the respective percentages being 60.3 and 81.5. In the West, the percentage amounted to 68.3. There was practically no difference between regions, however, in the relative number working 9 months or more and 6 months or more.

Regional variations in average hourly earnings are also partially responsible for the regional differences in annual earnings. The highest wage level was found in the West, the next highest in the North, and the lowest in the South. The respective regional average hourly earnings were 92.3, 84.7, and 66.0 cents.

### *Annual Earnings, by Division of Industry*

Considerable variation in annual earnings was also found between the three major divisions of the iron and steel industry. (See table 5.) Wage earners in steel works had the highest earnings and those in blast furnaces the lowest, the respective averages being \$1,985 and \$1,646. The average for wage earners in rolling mills (\$1,741) was greater by \$95 than was that for blast-furnace workers, but lower by \$244 than that for steel-works employees.

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<sup>6</sup> The northern region, by far the largest of the three, includes the States of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Ohio, West Virginia, Kentucky, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Missouri, and Minnesota; the southern region includes the States of Virginia, Tennessee, Alabama, and Georgia; and the western region the States of Colorado, California, and Washington.

The difference in the annual earnings of blast-furnace and steel-works employees is largely due to differences in the respective wage structures of these two divisions, as there was comparatively little difference in their respective levels of employment in 1937. In steel works, 71.4 percent of the workers were employed 12 months and 97.3 percent 9 months or more, the corresponding percentages for blast furnaces being 70.2 and 93.7. In rolling mills, on the other hand, employment was somewhat less stable than in the other two divisions, as only 59.0 percent of the employees in this division worked throughout the year. This, coupled with a slightly lower average hourly earning accounts for the fact that rolling-mill employees earned somewhat less than employees in steel works in 1937.

TABLE 5.—Average Annual Earnings of Iron and Steel Workers, by Division and Skill, 1937

Skill	Employees whose work extended over—											
	12 months			9 months or more			6 months or more			Any part of the year		
	Blast furnaces	Steel works	Rolling mills	Blast furnaces	Steel works	Rolling mills	Blast furnaces	Steel works	Rolling mills	Blast furnaces	Steel works	Rolling mills
Average annual earnings												
All workers.....	\$1,646	\$1,985	\$1,741	\$1,615	\$1,893	\$1,645	\$1,580	\$1,873	\$1,616	\$1,560	\$1,862	\$1,593
Skilled.....	1,973	2,297	2,070	1,961	2,238	1,979	1,947	2,227	1,955	1,939	2,220	1,937
Semiskilled.....	1,506	1,867	1,639	1,498	1,799	1,540	1,473	1,784	1,513	1,455	1,777	1,489
Unskilled.....	1,348	1,589	1,449	1,308	1,495	1,366	1,256	1,467	1,335	1,229	1,451	1,312
Percent of workers												
All workers.....	70.2	71.4	59.0	93.7	97.3	94.6	98.2	99.3	98.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
Skilled.....	78.2	77.2	61.5	97.8	98.6	96.3	99.5	99.6	98.7	100.0	100.0	100.0
Semiskilled.....	70.3	71.4	58.3	94.7	97.7	94.4	98.1	99.5	97.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unskilled.....	60.0	63.5	56.8	86.9	95.0	93.0	96.5	98.6	97.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers												
All workers.....	3,992	7,465	33,695	5,325	10,165	54,039	5,581	10,372	55,989	5,684	10,449	57,095
Skilled.....	1,505	3,313	11,512	1,883	4,232	18,013	1,916	4,273	18,472	1,925	4,292	18,707
Semiskilled.....	1,590	2,186	14,227	2,142	2,990	23,011	2,221	3,044	23,852	2,263	3,060	24,387
Unskilled.....	897	1,966	7,956	1,300	2,943	13,015	1,444	3,055	13,665	1,496	3,097	14,001

### Differences Among Individual Plants<sup>7</sup>

Annual earnings also differed widely among the various plants, as may be seen from the averages presented in table 6. For workers employed throughout the year, average annual earnings ranged from \$594 in one plant to \$4,829 in another plant. Of the 209 plants in this group, 191 had average annual earnings ranging from \$1,200 to

<sup>7</sup> Plant figures for any group were computed only when there were 10 or more workers.

\$2,400 and 142 earnings ranging from \$1,400 to \$2,000. On the whole there was much less dispersion in the averages of the 247 plants in each of which at least 10 workers were employed 9 months or more.

TABLE 6.—*Distribution of Iron and Steel Plants by Average Annual Earnings of Employees and Proportion of Employees Working Specified Periods, 1937*

Average annual earnings	Plants having employees whose work extended over—				Proportion to total employees who worked any part of the year	Plants having employees whose work extended over—		
	12 months	9 months or more	6 months or more	Any part of the year <sup>1</sup>		12 months	9 months or more	6 months or more
\$400, under \$600	1	1	1	1	Under 10 percent	12		
\$600, under \$800				3	10, under 20 percent	11	1	
\$800, under \$1,000	1	3	6	5	20, under 30 percent	9		
\$1,000 under \$1,200	3	13	16	18	30, under 40 percent	5		
\$1,200, under \$1,400	19	38	41	42	40, under 50 percent	4		
\$1,400, under \$1,600	46	55	51	61	50, under 60 percent	10		
\$1,600, under \$1,800	54	66	68	62	60, under 70 percent	12	3	
\$1,800, under \$2,000	42	45	41	42	70, under 80 percent	33	5	3
\$2,000, under \$2,200	19	13	13	13	80, under 90 percent	61	16	4
\$2,200, under \$2,400	11	9	8	7	90, under 100 percent	50	181	145
\$2,400, under \$2,600	<sup>2</sup> 13	4	4	4	100 percent	2	41	99
Total	209	247	251	258	Total	209	247	251
Minimum	\$594	\$594	\$553	\$535	Minimum	1.2	15.7	71.8
Maximum	\$4,829	\$2,558	\$2,558	\$2,558	Maximum	100.0	100.0	100.0

<sup>1</sup> Includes 7 plants for which no information was obtained regarding number of pay-roll periods worked.

<sup>2</sup> Includes 1 plant with average annual earnings of \$2,600 and under \$2,800; 2 with average annual earnings of \$2,800 and under \$3,000, and 2 with average annual earnings of \$3,000 and over.

Some idea of labor turn-over in the various plants covered may be had from table 6 which also shows the distribution of workers according to length of employment in 1937. The proportion of employees who worked 12 months varied from 1.2 percent in one plant to 100 percent in 2 plants. In 12 of the 209 plants in this group, less than 10 percent of the employees were employed throughout the year and in 23 plants less than 20 percent. Shut-downs undoubtedly account for these low ratios. In contrast, 52 plants showed at least 90 percent of the employees working 12 months and 146 plants at least 70 percent of the employees.

A total of 247 establishments reported 10 or more employees working at least 9 months in 1937. In only 9 of these establishments did less than 80 percent of the employees work at least 9 months. In 222 plants 90 percent or more of the employees worked at least 9 months.

There were 251 establishments in which 10 or more workers were employed at least 6 months in 1937. In 99 of these establishments all workers were employed 6 months or more, and in all but 7 at least 90 percent were employed 6 months or more.



## National Defense Policies

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### LABOR UNDER THE SELECTIVE SERVICE LAW

THE first law calling for peace-time military conscription of manpower in the United States became effective on September 16, 1940.<sup>1</sup> The act, officially known as the "Selective Training and Service Act of 1940" provides legislation for the common defense of the Nation by increasing the personnel of the armed forces and providing for its training. The act will continue in operation until May 15, 1945, unless extended or repealed by subsequent action of the Congress. Registration of all men between the ages of 21 and 36 took place on October 16th. On that date more than 16 million men presented themselves for registration, of which number less than one-third (or 5 million) probably will be subjected to training. The law limits the number of conscripts to be trained at any one time to 900,000, except in case of war.

#### *General Provisions*

In addition to the compulsory provisions of the act, any person between the ages of 18 and 36 may volunteer for the same type of service as is provided for others under the terms of the legislation. Service in either case, however, is limited to the Western Hemisphere, but including the territories and possessions of the United States and the Philippine Islands. The only exemptions from the liability of military service cover certain legislative and judicial officials and specified persons already in military service, and ordained ministers of religion as well as bona fide theological or divinity students. A student who has entered upon a regular college course during 1940 and has been selected may defer his induction until the completion of the academic year or until July 1, 1941, whichever occurs first.

After the formalities of selecting the draftee have been completed and he is inducted into the armed forces of the Nation, service shall continue for 1 year unless Congress declares that the national interest is imperiled, in which case the President may extend the period of training. Upon the completion of the training period each man shall be transferred to a reserve organization and be subject to further training and service until he is 45 or until the expiration of a 10-year period after such transfer, whichever occurs first, except that he may satisfy this requirement by 2 years' additional service in the Regular Army or National Guard.

<sup>1</sup> Public Act. No. 783, 76th Congress.

### *Provisions Affecting Labor*

In carrying out the provisions of the Selective Service Act, many new conditions and problems affecting labor and management will be presented.

Every employer must consider a drafted employee as in the class of a furloughed employee or as one on leave of absence and hence grant to such employee those benefits ordinarily extended to other employees. After a draftee has completed his term of service in the armed forces, the employer must restore him to his former job, or to a position of "like seniority, status, and pay," or to other benefits unless the employer's circumstances have so changed that it is "impossible or unreasonable to do so." However, as a condition precedent to such restoration, the former employee must have received a certificate of service and must have made the request for reinstatement within 40 days following his release from the service. An employee restored to his former job cannot be discharged without cause for a period of 1 year. Any employer refusing to rehire a trainee may be forced to act by the District Court of the United States for the district in which such employer maintains a place of business.

A drafted employee of the Federal Government must be restored to his former job, but in the case of an employee of a State or political subdivision the law merely urges restoration of the job.

Other provisions of interest to employers and employees alike include the establishment of a Personnel Division that will render aid in job placements; the restriction on the employer in the hiring of persons who are members of certain groups to take the place of drafted employees; and the protection of the rights of drafted employees who may have entered into contractual relations for installment purchases.

### *Provisions Applicable to Industry*

Although the draft legislation is primarily designed to strengthen the armed forces of the United States, there is included also in the act provisions for the limited conscription of industry. Briefly, the President may require a manufacturer to accept and execute orders for defense materials. Upon refusal, authority has been granted to the Government "to take immediate possession of any such plant or plants" and to manufacture any product or material which may be required for defense purposes. For failure to comply with these provisions a person is liable to imprisonment for 3 years and fine of not more than \$50,000. In all such cases of industrial conscription, the Government must reimburse a manufacturer for materials, etc., or pay for the rental of the premises on a basis that "shall be fair and just."

## OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF APPLICANTS FOR EMPLOYMENT, APRIL 1940<sup>1</sup>

THE current need for workers in shipyards and arsenals, the development of training programs, and reports of labor shortages in various lines of industrial activity have focused attention on the availability of skilled workers. The inventory, taken at the beginning of April 1940, of job seekers actively seeking work through the Public Employment Service provides the most recent comprehensive information on the distribution and characteristics of available workers. At that time approximately 5.1 million persons were actively seeking work through the 1,471 full-time employment offices in the 48 States, the District of Columbia, Alaska and Hawaii. Of this number, about 3.8 million were men. Nearly 27 percent of the total were 45 years of age or over and at least 20 percent of the men in each occupational group were in this age class. Some 2 million of the applicants were qualified for work in skilled or semiskilled jobs and 1.1 million were unskilled. Among them were many who were qualified for jobs directly or indirectly of value in the defense program.

During the past few years, increasing numbers of workers have sought jobs through the public employment offices, and the offices therefore have a more complete supply of workers in skilled crafts than before the inauguration of the unemployment-compensation program. During the year 1939, the number of placements with private employers approximated 2.7 million (a record for the public employment service up to that time), whereas in the first 6 months of 1940, they amounted to nearly 1.5 million. As the role of the public employment offices in the defense program becomes increasingly evident, it is expected that the number of workers available for employment through these facilities will continue to expand.

Since the inventory was taken, the demand for certain kinds of workers has rapidly increased and many registrants have been placed in jobs. To the extent, therefore, that these placements have exceeded registrations of other workers recently separated from employment, the April inventory overstates the availability of certain kinds of workers at the public employment offices; particularly of workers whose training and experience has been in occupations directly related to the armament program, such as tinsmiths, loftsmen, shipwrights, and other highly skilled workmen. Between April and September 1940 the active file increased by 480,000; among the workers who are believed to have registered for employment in defense industries there are undoubtedly many qualified in these skills.

<sup>1</sup> Prepared by the Research and Statistics Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.



### *Composition of the "Active File"*

The active file of job seekers, which is the basis for the periodic inventories, contains records showing the work histories of persons who are seeking work through the facilities of the local employment offices. These work histories give personal, occupational, and industrial characteristics of applicants obtained through careful interview by trained employment-service personnel. After the initial application, the job seeker must report periodically to the local employment offices in order to keep his application active. The period for which each new or renewed application remains active varies among the States from 15 to 90 days.

The file does not represent a complete count of the unemployed, because not all unemployed persons are registered for work at public employment offices. The introduction of the unemployment-compensation program brought into the local offices millions of workers who previously had not used these facilities for finding jobs; an unknown number of workers, however, continued to seek jobs through other means. Although no information is available that would indicate precisely how many of the unemployed do not register with the local offices, the number of applications in the active file during the past few years has ranged between one-half and two-thirds of the various estimates of the total number of unemployed.

Several reasons account for the fact that not all job seekers are registered. Probably the most important reason is that workers for whom jobs are not found within the period during which their applications remain valid often fail to renew their applications, even though they may continue to be unemployed. In such cases, the work-history card is removed to the inactive file. Local employment offices are fully aware of this tendency and hence frequently canvass the inactive files for workers qualified to meet the requirements of openings for which there is a restricted supply of available workers. Many placements thus are made from the inactive registers. Because of this, the active file of registrants understates the proportion of the currently unemployed whose work histories are available at the public employment offices. Another important reason, though not mutually exclusive of the preceding reason, is that it is customary for some labor unions to find employment for their unemployed members, as part of the procedure of preserving seniority rights. Once members of these unions have exhausted their benefit rights, therefore, there is a tendency to discontinue reporting regularly to the local employment office. Also, workers laid off frequently expect to or have been told to return to their former employment within a short time and, as a result, do not register for work.

As public agencies, the local employment offices accept applications for work from any individual who wishes to register with them.

Consequently, an indeterminate number of workers who are already employed and who are desirous of improving their employment status, or who prefer to do work of a kind different from that in which they are engaged, register with the local offices. Inventory data relating to the active file of job seekers do not distinguish between the persons employed or unemployed at the time of filing, although such information is recorded on the work history. However, the number of persons who apply for work at the public employment offices, although already employed, represents a very small proportion of the total number of registered job applicants.

Turn-over is large and continuous. Many workers find employment during the validity period of their applications through means other than the employment offices, but their cards may remain in the active file until the expiration of the validity period. New applications are added daily, however, so that the representativeness of the file continues for some time after the date of the inventory, except during periods of exceptionally rapid change in employment conditions.

Occupational qualifications of registered workers are established after careful interview, and oral statements by applicants and their degrees of skill are frequently subject to test and verification. In recent years, with the labor supply relatively ample, employers have tended to raise qualification standards, since even these higher standards could be met without difficulty. At present, when workers are needed immediately for certain industries, the rigid standards of earlier years probably cannot be maintained without causing stringencies. In the past, specifications with respect to personal characteristics, and factors other than qualifications for the job, had been frequently introduced. Adherence to such specifications necessarily limits the number of workers considered available or qualified. Since such preferences are not revealed until job orders are received from employers, registrants in the active-file count must be regarded as available for work, since they are seeking employment and possess the technical skill required to perform the job.

### *General Characteristics of Registrants*

#### OCCUPATIONAL, AGE, AND SEX DISTRIBUTION

Table 1, which presents an age and sex distribution of job seekers, by occupation, indicates that within each of the occupational groups there were fairly marked differences in the ages of male and female applicants. Thus, at least 20 percent of the men in each occupational class were 45 years of age and over; among the skilled workers the proportion ranged as high as 42 percent. Among the woman registrants the proportion 45 years of age and over ranged from less than 10 percent in clerical and sales occupations to 37 percent in the skilled group.

TABLE 1.—Occupational Distribution of Job Seekers Registered at Public Employment Offices, April 1940, by Sex and Age

Occupation	Total		Men			Women		
	Number	Per cent	Total	Under 21	45 and over	Total	Under 21	45 and over
All occupations.....	5,084,178	100.0	3,796,690	288,762	1,130,784	1,287,488	206,570	236,707
Professional and managerial.....	169,262	3.3	129,498	5,160	42,494	39,764	1,872	10,205
Professional.....	82,223	1.6	55,556	1,732	16,264	26,667	828	6,998
Semiprofessional.....	36,831	.7	29,613	3,140	5,832	7,221	1,005	813
Managerial and official.....	50,205	1.0	44,329	288	20,398	5,876	39	2,394
Clerical and sales.....	657,456	12.9	310,761	39,727	66,720	346,695	73,056	30,556
Clerical and kindred.....	408,419	8.0	172,077	26,451	29,775	236,342	50,989	16,763
Sales and kindred.....	249,037	4.9	138,684	13,276	36,945	110,353	22,067	13,793
Service.....	625,299	12.3	259,671	20,550	97,665	365,628	53,324	92,352
Domestic service.....	258,864	5.1	22,338	3,154	6,681	236,526	40,799	61,344
Personal service.....	251,965	5.0	134,226	13,380	35,008	117,739	12,143	26,526
Protective service.....	40,747	.8	39,372	217	30,599	1,375	10	816
Building-service workers and porters.....	73,723	1.4	63,735	3,799	25,377	9,988	372	3,666
Agricultural, fishery, forestry, etc.....	443,189	8.7	428,511	40,364	111,424	14,678	1,122	3,282
Agricultural, horticultural, etc.....	438,982	8.6	424,506	40,184	110,017	14,476	1,089	3,240
Fishery.....	3,147	.1	2,954	146	1,058	193	31	42
Forestry (except logging) and hunting and trapping.....	1,060	( <sup>1</sup> )	1,051	34	349	9	2	0
Skilled.....	979,979	19.3	890,551	30,165	369,407	89,428	4,416	32,738
Manufacturing.....	386,291	7.6	300,952	11,027	112,808	85,339	4,008	31,800
Nonmanufacturing.....	406,847	8.0	406,250	6,512	193,737	597	29	154
Miscellaneous.....	153,895	3.0	151,972	12,580	44,947	1,923	373	226
Foremen.....	32,946	.7	31,377	46	17,915	1,569	6	558
Semiskilled.....	1,010,610	19.9	773,772	44,384	178,049	236,838	20,027	44,259
Manufacturing.....	456,214	9.0	258,273	8,329	79,525	197,941	11,817	38,911
Nonmanufacturing.....	442,853	8.7	421,891	23,817	71,497	20,962	930	4,584
Miscellaneous.....	110,042	2.2	92,157	12,168	26,486	17,885	7,280	757
Apprentices.....	1,501	( <sup>1</sup> )	1,451	70	541	50	0	7
Unskilled.....	1,053,894	20.7	928,630	68,885	257,771	125,264	17,536	15,104
Manufacturing.....	329,984	6.5	239,569	21,092	55,195	90,415	12,330	11,735
Nonmanufacturing.....	570,641	11.2	561,362	24,405	177,246	9,279	677	1,446
Miscellaneous.....	153,269	3.0	127,699	23,388	25,330	25,570	4,529	1,923
No recent work experience.....	144,489	2.9	75,296	39,527	7,254	69,193	35,217	8,211
Unemployables.....	4,352	.1	2,796	49	2,154	1,556	40	948
Recent students.....	108,907	2.1	59,289	38,599	115	49,618	33,986	190
Persons without work experience.....	17,441	.4	4,718	298	1,869	12,723	455	5,488
Unspecified.....	13,789	.3	8,493	581	3,116	5,296	736	1,585

<sup>1</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Of the 5.1 million workers included in table 1, nearly 1.4 million (27 percent of the total) were 45 years of age or over. There were marked differences in the age distribution of the registrants for different classes of workers. Among workers with experience in skilled and semiskilled occupations—groups on which in view of expanded production schedules, immediate demands will be made—about a third of those from manufacturing and nonmanufacturing activities were 45 years of age or over. Older workers represented 41 percent of the total registrants in the skilled occupations, in contrast to 22 percent among the semiskilled groups. On the whole, however, the skilled workers whose usual occupation was in manufacturing were somewhat younger than those whose usual work was in nonmanufacturing activity.

In practically every class of skilled workers whose occupations will be utilized either directly or indirectly in industries related to the



defense program, approximately a third or more of the registrants were 45 years of age or over, and in some instances, as in the case of molders, tool sharpeners, cabinetmakers, and construction workers, these older workers comprised half or more of the registrants. In the metal-working occupations more than a third of the registrants were older workers, and in the case of skilled tool and die makers, the proportion was even higher.

Approximately 2 million persons were qualified for work in skilled and semiskilled occupations, and 1.1 million for unskilled work. The remainder consisted of 169,000 persons qualified for professional or managerial work, 657,000 for clerical-and-sales work, 625,000 for the service occupations, and 443,000 for occupations related to agriculture, forestry, and fishing. Registrants for manufacturing occupations constituted a large proportion of the total number of skilled and semiskilled workers. Particularly prominent in this group were workers with skills used in manufacturing textiles and textile products, who numbered approximately 300,000. The second largest group of persons in manufacturing occupations consisted of the 219,000 workers with skill in metal work, which is essential to defense industries. Among these metal workers, about which there has been some concern regarding the current supply, were 55,000 machinists and others with machine-shop experience, 6,200 tool and die makers, 31,700 molders and welders, 13,100 tinsmiths, coppersmiths, and sheet-metal workers, and about 33,000 workers skilled in jobs relating to the mechanical treatment of metals, such as rolling, stamping, and forging. Another relatively important group of workers was represented by the 47,000 registrants with skills used in the leather industry, particularly shoe manufacturing.

Skilled and semiskilled workers with experience in nonmanufacturing activities numbered 850,000, of which somewhat less than half had had experience in occupations used in construction trades. There was, however, an additional group of 72,000 workmen composed of electricians, cranemen, drillers, and others, whose skills are also related to construction work. Second in importance among the skilled and semiskilled workers with occupations outside of the field of manufacturing were the 320,000 registrants whose job experience had been acquired in various branches of the transportation industry. Most of these registrants were drivers of motor vehicles. Mechanics and repairmen, whose skills are usually transferable among several industries, numbered 77,000. Most of this group was qualified for automotive work and about 1,400 of them were airplane mechanics.

#### OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION, BY STATES

Skilled, semiskilled, and unskilled workmen each accounted for about 20 percent of all registered job seekers in April. Registrants with experience in the clerical and sales and service occupations

together accounted for about 25 percent of the total, and the remainder consisted of persons who had worked either in agriculture, forestry, and fishing (8.7 percent), in professional and managerial positions (3.3 percent), or in other occupations (2.9) percent). Among the skilled and unskilled groups, about 90 percent were men, but among the semiskilled workers only 75 percent were men. Women outnumbered men in both the clerical and sales and service groups.

A geographic distribution of applicants is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Occupational Distribution of Job Seekers Registered at Public Employment Offices, by State and Sex, April 1940

State	All occupations			Professional and managerial		Clerical and sales		Service	
	Total	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
All States.....	5,084,178	3,796,690	1,287,488	129,498	39,764	310,761	346,695	259,671	365,628
Alabama.....	111,602	90,696	20,906	1,272	800	3,590	4,487	3,612	7,083
Alaska.....	2,726	2,462	264	70	9	101	62	171	119
Arizona.....	24,004	20,267	3,737	428	104	1,150	1,244	1,191	1,777
Arkansas.....	45,463	36,320	9,143	642	175	1,991	2,417	1,531	4,708
California.....	413,140	290,088	123,052	16,190	6,152	31,192	38,219	28,212	35,884
Colorado.....	54,713	44,147	10,566	1,482	955	2,628	2,791	2,060	5,027
Connecticut.....	69,467	49,779	19,688	1,779	294	4,582	5,193	3,084	3,310
Delaware.....	15,446	11,305	4,141	301	69	774	1,022	662	1,634
Dist. of Columbia.....	40,100	26,643	13,457	1,262	464	3,460	5,527	4,971	6,127
Florida.....	49,028	38,137	10,891	1,287	311	3,196	2,868	3,103	3,261
Georgia.....	129,402	92,472	36,930	2,120	1,085	5,720	6,372	5,105	9,120
Hawaii.....	8,251	6,185	2,066	114	57	569	642	380	411
Idaho.....	13,034	11,535	1,499	222	42	491	419	455	798
Illinois.....	165,617	117,820	47,797	6,152	1,574	15,111	17,589	9,898	11,772
Indiana.....	147,998	114,419	33,579	3,247	755	8,785	10,029	7,644	11,907
Iowa.....	83,334	65,532	17,802	1,337	517	4,727	5,349	2,414	6,682
Kansas.....	62,696	51,308	11,388	1,241	486	3,057	2,651	2,566	5,488
Kentucky.....	89,726	71,634	18,092	1,209	542	3,742	3,971	2,898	6,592
Louisiana.....	69,535	55,422	14,113	1,219	306	3,505	4,497	3,313	5,588
Maine.....	40,238	31,028	9,210	911	182	1,967	1,839	1,484	2,026
Maryland.....	70,712	52,966	17,746	1,367	319	3,691	5,120	3,984	3,854
Massachusetts.....	147,386	95,077	52,309	3,650	679	9,461	11,347	5,816	6,228
Michigan.....	217,698	170,801	46,897	5,963	1,336	12,680	14,863	9,916	13,915
Minnesota.....	150,220	117,557	32,663	4,092	1,035	11,128	10,096	6,071	11,572
Mississippi.....	47,020	39,258	7,762	495	163	1,316	1,373	1,541	2,888
Missouri.....	159,999	119,377	40,622	3,297	960	10,335	10,426	9,584	12,428
Montana.....	29,625	24,890	4,735	502	178	1,325	1,627	897	2,504
Nebraska.....	40,951	32,797	8,154	1,341	909	2,593	2,790	1,476	2,925
Nevada.....	5,953	4,884	1,069	110	37	242	283	555	596
New Hampshire.....	19,920	14,340	5,580	420	81	966	968	802	1,329
New Jersey.....	227,126	153,426	73,700	7,211	1,443	17,442	18,891	11,296	12,785
New Mexico.....	34,526	29,270	5,256	398	218	1,068	957	960	3,516
New York.....	668,868	468,794	200,074	25,602	8,607	51,479	49,420	51,425	34,604
North Carolina.....	81,721	54,712	27,009	889	538	2,758	3,448	2,961	6,480
North Dakota.....	30,165	24,011	6,154	906	445	1,384	1,267	617	3,924
Ohio.....	273,813	210,731	63,082	6,979	1,141	16,565	17,127	14,011	23,579
Oklahoma.....	88,462	71,684	16,778	1,358	525	3,413	3,992	3,029	9,392
Oregon.....	32,967	26,803	6,164	672	171	1,986	2,084	1,303	1,852
Pennsylvania.....	282,500	216,475	66,025	6,464	1,084	18,374	20,290	11,931	16,749
Rhode Island.....	36,223	21,246	14,977	541	110	2,117	3,236	1,129	1,254
South Carolina.....	38,615	30,550	8,065	390	236	1,197	1,643	1,357	3,210
South Dakota.....	28,663	22,399	6,264	721	343	1,043	1,087	406	3,390
Tennessee.....	115,550	83,557	31,993	2,039	1,107	5,608	7,322	5,284	11,425
Texas.....	240,420	182,216	58,204	4,550	1,192	14,382	19,387	15,575	22,059
Utah.....	22,605	18,851	3,754	460	133	953	1,108	781	1,376
Vermont.....	16,068	11,706	4,362	336	137	861	928	759	1,661
Virginia.....	46,414	33,117	13,297	523	303	1,843	2,565	2,227	3,660
Washington.....	93,732	73,401	20,331	2,505	695	5,398	6,432	3,948	5,809
West Virginia.....	63,342	54,385	8,957	579	249	1,852	2,087	1,310	4,203
Wisconsin.....	127,202	101,582	25,620	2,409	459	6,582	6,880	3,661	6,423
Wyoming.....	10,192	8,628	1,564	184	52	381	463	305	724

TABLE 2.—Occupational Distribution of Job Seekers Registered at Public Employment Offices, by State and Sex, April 1940—Continued

State	Agriculture, fishery, and forestry		Skilled		Semiskilled		Unskilled		Unassigned <sup>1</sup>	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
All States.....	428, 511	14, 678	890, 551	89, 428	773, 772	236, 838	928, 630	125, 264	75, 296	69, 193
Alabama.....	27, 319	465	15, 632	1, 840	14, 403	3, 489	24, 023	1, 215	845	1, 527
Alaska.....	257		761	10	368	3	690	45	44	16
Arizona.....	4, 822	116	3, 808	170	3, 653	129	5, 110	87	105	110
Arkansas.....	10, 981	68	5, 924	371	5, 635	552	9, 461	754	155	98
California.....	34, 057	6, 458	69, 101	6, 603	47, 262	12, 474	55, 518	9, 200	8, 556	8, 062
Colorado.....	12, 728	77	9, 945	372	7, 467	379	7, 335	320	502	645
Connecticut.....	1, 722	26	13, 880	1, 505	11, 209	7, 290	13, 024	1, 800	499	270
Delaware.....	1, 038	12	2, 999	146	1, 931	576	3, 529	588	71	94
Dist. of Columbia.....	151	1	6, 256	449	4, 067	526	6, 461	338	15	25
Florida.....	3, 930	604	9, 411	1, 275	6, 157	1, 177	10, 680	1, 076	373	319
Georgia.....	24, 139	1, 372	15, 479	3, 440	17, 314	7, 617	21, 349	5, 770	1, 246	2, 154
Hawaii.....	256	2	1, 236	45	825	94	2, 803	812	2	3
Idaho.....	1, 956	68	3, 170	36	3, 020	42	2, 118	61	103	33
Illinois.....	6, 295	63	32, 245	2, 709	26, 606	8, 813	20, 887	5, 182	626	95
Indiana.....	8, 014	18	28, 007	1, 882	25, 866	4, 508	32, 367	4, 259	489	221
Iowa.....	10, 722	16	14, 694	859	11, 097	1, 595	20, 145	2, 574	396	210
Kansas.....	7, 973	10	11, 568	876	9, 486	583	14, 605	821	812	473
Kentucky.....	12, 806	13	17, 562	1, 259	9, 984	2, 043	22, 356	2, 302	1, 015	1, 370
Louisiana.....	6, 558	55	9, 772	651	11, 063	966	19, 577	1, 613	415	437
Maine.....	2, 032	40	9, 626	881	7, 422	2, 702	7, 193	1, 396	393	144
Maryland.....	4, 631	11	11, 646	836	10, 387	3, 941	17, 233	3, 659	27	6
Massachusetts.....	2, 389	89	30, 101	5, 232	24, 850	20, 804	17, 089	6, 853	1, 721	1, 077
Michigan.....	10, 486	289	50, 088	3, 434	46, 075	7, 685	35, 421	5, 301	172	74
Minnesota.....	16, 183	40	29, 403	2, 459	20, 648	3, 627	28, 633	3, 160	1, 399	674
Mississippi.....	10, 905	97	5, 241	700	7, 393	1, 295	12, 003	562	364	684
Missouri.....	18, 032	112	24, 954	3, 569	22, 740	6, 928	29, 349	4, 884	1, 086	1, 315
Montana.....	3, 373	43	6, 222	208	5, 529	105	6, 954	60	88	10
Nebraska.....	6, 911	6	6, 324	362	6, 010	257	7, 830	695	312	210
Nevada.....	540	1	1, 233	61	1, 093	26	1, 095	30	16	35
New Hampshire.....	628	2	4, 565	803	3, 704	1, 571	2, 848	653	407	173
New Jersey.....	4, 255	148	44, 531	6, 697	32, 429	21, 798	35, 813	11, 642	449	296
New Mexico.....	8, 979	26	4, 413	369	4, 754	68	8, 627	40	71	62
New York.....	7, 517	168	105, 925	11, 589	110, 790	50, 474	78, 730	10, 200	37, 326	35, 012
North Carolina.....	11, 096	668	9, 783	1, 755	9, 976	6, 259	15, 947	5, 440	1, 302	2, 421
North Dakota.....	10, 055	4	3, 470	131	3, 808	68	3, 567	139	204	176
Ohio.....	11, 889	71	56, 144	4, 818	50, 636	9, 204	53, 044	5, 815	1, 463	1, 327
Oklahoma.....	22, 195	125	12, 340	958	10, 993	470	18, 148	834	208	482
Oregon.....	2, 367	104	6, 636	339	7, 671	825	5, 777	675	391	114
Pennsylvania.....	6, 240	41	62, 071	4, 508	46, 605	16, 909	63, 808	5, 833	982	611
Rhode Island.....	510	6	6, 652	2, 246	5, 262	5, 769	4, 353	1, 758	682	598
South Carolina.....	8, 713	465	4, 636	498	5, 913	1, 406	8, 344	607		
South Dakota.....	6, 755	1	3, 130	460	4, 209	72	5, 698	297	437	614
Tennessee.....	19, 751	116	16, 281	2, 630	15, 548	5, 865	18, 901	2, 405	145	1, 123
Texas.....	27, 738	514	35, 867	3, 802	32, 530	5, 854	51, 012	4, 872	562	524
Utah.....	3, 203	8	4, 395	318	3, 708	420	5, 200	238	151	153
Vermont.....	985	3	3, 225	338	2, 697	863	2, 633	298	210	134
Virginia.....	3, 519	301	7, 020	796	6, 245	2, 572	11, 333	2, 577	407	523
Washington.....	8, 283	1, 694	18, 421	994	18, 212	1, 938	15, 756	2, 093	878	676
West Virginia.....	7, 313	14	9, 248	685	7, 793	798	25, 419	450	871	471
Wisconsin.....	4, 376	22	23, 370	2, 386	18, 624	3, 375	36, 419	2, 970	6, 141	3, 105
Wyoming.....	936	5	2, 140	68	2, 105	34	2, 415	11	162	207

<sup>1</sup> Includes unemployables, recent students, persons without work experience, and unspecified.

An outstanding feature of the occupational distribution of registrants for each State was the fact that, contrary to expectations, in a majority of the States, the skilled and semiskilled groups either outnumbered or approximated the number of the unskilled workers. In several instances, notably in the New England area, and in Illinois,



Michigan, Colorado, and California, the number of skilled workers considerably exceeded the unskilled. On the other hand, in Arkansas, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, New Mexico, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wisconsin, unskilled workers were preponderant.

## INDUSTRIAL DISTRIBUTION

Nearly 1.4 million persons, or 27 percent, of the job seekers had previously been employed in manufacturing industries (table 3). Of these, approximately 330,000 had had experience in the manufacture of textiles and textile products, including apparel, and approximately 136,000 had been employed in industries producing iron and steel or their products. Among the 655,000 workers shown for the miscellaneous manufacturing activities, the largest single group was 191,000 workers formerly engaged in the manufacture of food and kindred products. The 741,000 workers with experience in wholesale and retail enterprises accounted for 15 percent of the total, and those from construction and service activities each represented 12 percent of all registrants. A significant number of registrants—16 percent—had not had any recent work experience and were therefore regarded as having no industrial affiliation. Included in this group were new entrants into the labor market and persons who had not been employed during the past 4 years.

TABLE 3.—*Industrial Distribution of Job Seekers Registered at Public Employment Offices, by Sex and Age, April 1940*

Industry group	Total number	Men			Women		
		Total	Under 21	45 and over	Total	Under 21	45 and over
<b>All industry groups</b> .....	<b>5,084,178</b>	<b>3,796,690</b>	<b>288,762</b>	<b>1,130,784</b>	<b>1,287,488</b>	<b>206,570</b>	<b>236,707</b>
<b>Agriculture, forestry, and fishery</b> .....	<b>443,129</b>	<b>434,208</b>	<b>41,563</b>	<b>110,881</b>	<b>8,921</b>	<b>1,353</b>	<b>1,779</b>
Farming and agricultural services.....	433,386	424,726	40,757	108,342	8,660	1,317	1,725
Forestry.....	5,105	5,052	552	1,095	53	7	9
Fishery.....	4,638	4,430	254	1,444	208	29	45
<b>Mining</b> .....	<b>130,637</b>	<b>129,582</b>	<b>2,769</b>	<b>41,829</b>	<b>1,055</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>187</b>
Metal mining.....	23,197	23,012	358	7,617	185	8	64
Anthracite mining.....	6,144	6,081	111	2,051	63	5	7
Bituminous, etc. mining.....	57,101	56,904	1,363	20,454	197	8	30
Crude-petroleum and natural-gas production.....	24,450	23,990	410	5,800	460	24	59
Nonmetallic mining and quarrying.....	19,745	19,595	527	5,907	150	10	27
<b>Construction</b> .....	<b>628,556</b>	<b>625,091</b>	<b>15,303</b>	<b>215,429</b>	<b>3,465</b>	<b>393</b>	<b>526</b>
Building construction, general contractors.....	254,856	253,743	6,069	102,507	1,113	133	151
General contractors, other than building.....	226,201	225,472	4,867	58,048	729	46	141
Construction, special trade contractors.....	147,499	145,876	4,367	54,874	1,623	214	234
<b>Manufacturing</b> .....	<b>1,372,176</b>	<b>978,266</b>	<b>52,208</b>	<b>273,119</b>	<b>393,910</b>	<b>36,553</b>	<b>62,517</b>
Food and kindred products.....	191,386	129,327	8,099	29,062	62,059	6,264	10,646
Tobacco manufactures.....	19,586	7,846	334	2,239	11,740	732	2,182
Textiles.....	179,929	93,314	6,595	27,040	86,615	6,010	15,455
Apparel, etc., made from fabrics and similar materials.....	141,833	49,805	2,366	21,812	92,028	7,421	20,129
Lumber and basic products.....	118,663	117,200	4,910	34,433	1,463	97	265
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	58,874	51,128	3,416	13,632	7,746	756	975
Paper and allied products.....	30,670	20,554	1,292	4,678	10,116	1,142	936
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	43,689	30,797	2,987	8,603	12,892	1,203	1,656
Chemicals and allied products.....	45,953	36,922	1,476	9,100	9,031	1,000	847

TABLE 3.—Industrial Distribution of Job Seekers Registered at Public Employment Offices, by Sex and Age, April 1940—Continued

Industry group	Total number	Men			Women		
		Total	Under 21	45 and over	Total	Under 21	45 and over
<b>Manufacturing—Continued.</b>							
Products of petroleum and coal	15,174	14,210	408	3,386	964	54	81
Rubber products	16,462	11,424	668	2,213	5,038	407	378
Leather and its products	58,070	34,161	2,465	11,099	23,909	2,604	3,893
Stone, clay, and glass products	57,743	51,952	3,031	15,897	5,791	1,635	384
Iron, steel, and their products	135,596	126,600	4,310	36,021	8,996	786	727
Transportation equipment (except automobiles)	22,502	21,983	725	7,894	519	40	49
Nonferrous metals and their products	29,300	24,360	1,393	5,824	4,940	562	391
Electrical machinery	41,452	23,845	1,774	4,257	17,607	2,303	565
Machinery (except electrical)	58,663	51,914	1,671	15,995	6,749	505	618
Automobiles and their equipment	61,975	55,308	1,065	14,061	6,667	313	472
Miscellaneous manufacturing	44,656	25,616	2,623	5,873	19,040	2,719	1,868
<b>Transportation, communication, and utilities.</b>	<b>206,390</b>	<b>187,409</b>	<b>8,985</b>	<b>47,347</b>	<b>18,881</b>	<b>1,033</b>	<b>1,960</b>
Interstate railroads	42,143	41,389	873	13,084	754	35	164
Street railways and bus lines	7,724	7,443	108	2,811	281	13	53
Trucking and/or warehousing	71,118	68,393	3,295	12,442	2,725	239	469
Water transportation	14,414	13,982	334	4,745	432	14	91
Other transportation	11,938	11,456	343	1,824	482	44	50
Services allied to transportation	15,225	14,630	455	4,946	595	46	56
Telephone, telegraph, etc.	20,095	8,840	3,047	1,221	11,255	528	842
Utilities, electric and gas	19,729	17,723	422	5,018	2,006	97	195
Local utilities and local public services	3,904	3,553	108	1,262	351	17	40
<b>Wholesale and retail trade</b>	<b>741,313</b>	<b>497,360</b>	<b>49,951</b>	<b>109,028</b>	<b>243,853</b>	<b>32,779</b>	<b>31,325</b>
Full-service and limited-function wholesalers	79,252	61,168	3,668	14,509	18,084	1,505	2,374
Wholesale distributors, other than above	39,412	27,173	1,545	6,038	12,239	645	2,339
Retail general merchandise	127,242	40,880	4,836	7,681	86,362	14,838	9,273
Retail food (including liquor)	97,300	79,943	14,006	14,900	17,357	3,269	1,756
Retail automotive	30,327	27,643	1,379	5,803	2,684	281	175
Retail apparel and accessories	38,964	15,522	1,340	4,396	23,442	1,824	5,144
Other retail trade	93,023	74,636	8,895	16,473	18,387	2,499	2,095
Eating and drinking places	152,999	90,201	6,692	24,223	62,798	7,621	7,897
Filling stations, automobile repair	60,234	59,035	6,626	8,140	1,199	173	116
Other	22,460	21,159	964	6,775	1,301	124	156
<b>Finance, insurance, and real estate</b>	<b>70,194</b>	<b>48,783</b>	<b>1,177</b>	<b>18,240</b>	<b>21,411</b>	<b>1,435</b>	<b>3,438</b>
Banks and trust companies	5,544	3,497	90	1,273	2,047	128	287
Security dealers and investment bankers	4,981	3,846	88	1,059	1,135	43	124
Finance agencies, not elsewhere classified	4,541	2,474	65	698	2,067	176	150
Insurance carriers	11,971	6,438	90	1,773	5,533	297	367
Insurance agents and brokers	5,443	3,046	70	849	2,397	252	173
Real-estate dealers, agents, and brokers	33,726	26,773	672	11,646	6,953	388	2,204
Real estate, insurance, loans, law offices: Any combination	2,374	1,399	50	569	975	131	107
Holding companies (except real estate)	1,614	1,310	52	373	304	20	26
<b>Service</b>	<b>599,912</b>	<b>291,872</b>	<b>20,352</b>	<b>85,515</b>	<b>308,040</b>	<b>40,972</b>	<b>69,032</b>
Hotels, rooming houses, camps, other lodging	65,779	39,485	2,235	11,908	26,294	1,276	8,140
Personal services	74,842	35,822	2,691	9,115	39,020	2,813	7,397
Business services, not elsewhere classified	28,441	19,797	1,640	5,130	8,644	836	1,033
Employment agencies, commercial and trade schools	1,941	1,115	58	376	826	83	128
Miscellaneous repair services and hand trades	13,934	13,209	1,024	3,996	725	80	112
Motion pictures	13,918	10,033	1,433	2,441	3,885	562	474
Amusement, recreation, etc.	43,570	37,415	4,644	9,188	6,155	579	1,179
Medical and health services	23,456	9,520	440	2,959	13,936	1,433	2,660
Law offices and related services	4,504	1,213	56	335	3,291	574	237
Educational institutions and agencies	21,223	9,978	669	2,658	11,245	903	2,185
Other professional and social-service agencies and institutions	10,358	6,892	273	2,629	3,466	386	751
Nonprofit-membership organizations	7,223	4,668	254	1,783	2,555	217	449
Domestic service	202,982	27,953	2,393	8,812	175,029	30,116	41,849
Government agencies	87,741	74,772	2,533	24,185	12,969	1,114	2,438
<b>Establishments, other</b>	<b>892,071</b>	<b>604,119</b>	<b>96,454</b>	<b>229,396</b>	<b>287,952</b>	<b>91,997</b>	<b>65,943</b>
Establishments not elsewhere classified	58,879	49,521	2,326	18,421	9,358	1,312	2,505
Unclassifiable	333,192	554,598	94,128	210,975	278,594	90,685	63,438

The fact that certain industries offer few job opportunities to women because of the nature of the work is reflected in the industrial characteristics of male and female registrants. Few women, for example,

were classified as having experience in agriculture, forestry, and fishing, in mining, and in construction. In manufacturing, however, 29 percent of the total were women; in trade, approximately 33 percent; and in service industries, more than 50 percent.

TABLE 4.—*Industrial Distribution of Job Seekers Registered at Public Employment Offices, by State and Sex, April 1940*

State	All industries			Agriculture, forestry, and fishery		Mining		Construction		Manufacturing	
	Total	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
All States.....	5,084,178	3,796,600	1,287,488	434,208	8,921	129,582	1,055	625,091	3,465	978,266	393,910
Alabama.....	111,602	90,696	20,906	26,878	724	3,481	8	12,409	32	21,859	4,675
Alaska.....	2,726	2,462	264	344	4	477	9	336	1	443	64
Arizona.....	24,004	20,267	3,737	4,980	110	2,174	13	3,461	10	1,294	145
Arkansas.....	45,463	36,320	9,143	11,056	147	2,287	8	4,778	25	7,389	1,157
California.....	413,140	290,088	123,052	32,312	1,540	8,040	168	42,231	345	56,204	22,423
Colorado.....	54,713	44,147	10,566	10,941	120	3,821	16	7,025	21	4,818	604
Connecticut.....	69,467	49,779	19,688	1,551	73	125	3	8,839	56	15,925	9,201
Delaware.....	15,446	11,305	4,141	673	8	41	1	3,435	6	3,170	1,249
Dist. of Columbia.....	40,100	26,643	13,457	433	5	87	2	7,929	33	1,833	511
Florida.....	49,028	38,137	10,891	2,264	86	444	9	8,119	42	8,872	2,899
Georgia.....	129,402	92,472	36,930	24,397	1,015	941	20	13,915	109	24,503	14,911
Hawaii.....	8,251	6,185	2,066	543	15	15	2	1,348	6	1,390	1,231
Idaho.....	13,034	11,535	1,499	1,784	18	731	4	2,048	-----	3,343	84
Illinois.....	165,617	117,820	47,797	5,221	99	4,609	34	13,669	133	36,898	15,767
Indiana.....	147,998	114,419	33,579	5,882	63	3,755	10	12,497	80	37,522	8,404
Iowa.....	83,334	65,532	17,802	11,658	73	3,129	11	16,120	54	10,562	3,949
Kansas.....	62,696	51,308	11,388	7,481	36	3,237	15	8,223	24	5,968	1,178
Kentucky.....	89,726	71,634	18,092	17,937	33	8,658	51	10,768	41	10,744	3,638
Louisiana.....	69,535	55,422	14,113	6,241	147	2,190	29	9,163	42	19,656	2,432
Maine.....	40,238	31,028	9,210	2,436	12	221	1	5,886	15	12,956	4,790
Maryland.....	70,712	52,966	17,746	5,150	34	968	9	10,430	30	14,084	6,838
Massachusetts.....	147,386	95,077	52,309	2,150	92	494	18	14,144	106	43,072	32,037
Michigan.....	217,698	170,801	46,897	10,041	149	3,050	38	22,493	164	62,953	13,412
Minnesota.....	150,220	117,557	32,663	13,893	61	3,249	14	24,263	146	20,283	6,214
Mississippi.....	47,020	39,258	7,762	9,902	133	210	2	11,236	15	10,688	2,230
Missouri.....	159,999	119,377	40,622	18,366	188	3,183	12	17,357	78	25,254	12,385
Montana.....	29,625	24,890	4,735	4,800	101	3,013	20	7,300	28	2,471	98
Nebraska.....	40,951	32,797	8,151	5,771	13	198	-----	8,601	21	2,974	874
Nevada.....	5,953	4,884	1,069	539	25	1,124	15	1,117	3	192	22
New Hampshire.....	19,920	14,340	5,580	783	20	65	2	2,654	4	6,458	2,937
New Jersey.....	227,126	153,426	73,700	4,175	124	560	43	23,308	284	52,967	37,971
New Mexico.....	34,526	29,270	5,256	11,586	52	2,174	11	5,144	12	1,502	132
New York.....	668,868	468,794	200,074	7,283	153	2,072	84	71,279	625	124,778	73,109
North Carolina.....	81,721	54,712	27,009	12,230	636	370	4	9,505	54	18,166	11,344
North Dakota.....	30,165	24,011	6,154	10,758	2	630	1	5,093	11	834	233
Ohio.....	273,813	210,731	63,082	11,000	114	7,406	31	28,549	144	76,599	18,469
Oklahoma.....	88,462	71,684	16,778	21,609	213	6,788	72	8,948	34	6,770	1,070
Oregon.....	32,967	26,803	6,164	3,060	54	414	5	4,410	16	10,939	1,806
Pennsylvania.....	282,500	216,475	66,025	5,680	61	16,274	53	26,896	144	72,404	25,347
Rhode Island.....	36,223	21,246	14,977	762	25	39	2	3,143	32	9,669	9,590
South Carolina.....	38,615	30,550	8,065	8,505	503	179	5	6,442	18	7,970	2,207
South Dakota.....	28,663	22,399	6,264	6,377	19	203	-----	6,243	16	915	398
Tennessee.....	115,550	83,557	31,993	20,926	443	1,768	11	12,444	64	18,980	8,381
Texas.....	240,420	182,216	58,204	29,386	972	9,376	121	45,383	179	27,999	9,189
Utah.....	22,605	18,851	3,754	2,983	16	1,542	4	4,373	5	2,125	669
Vermont.....	16,068	11,706	4,362	1,141	3	374	2	3,057	4	3,550	1,455
Virginia.....	46,414	33,117	13,297	3,469	64	915	1	8,449	28	8,967	3,937
Washington.....	93,732	73,401	20,331	7,881	205	1,360	19	10,157	48	23,782	4,270
West Virginia.....	63,342	54,385	8,957	5,804	26	10,760	35	6,594	9	7,684	1,331
Wisconsin.....	127,202	101,582	25,620	11,928	50	749	4	21,500	62	27,264	6,525
Wyoming.....	10,192	8,628	1,564	1,258	42	1,522	3	2,380	6	624	28



TABLE 4.—Industrial Distribution of Job Seekers Registered at Public Employment Offices, by State and Sex, April 1940—Continued

State	Transportation, communication, and utilities		Wholesale and retail trade		Finance, insurance, and real estate		Service		Establishments, not elsewhere classified		No recent work experience	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
All States.....	187,409	18,881	497,360	243,853	48,783	21,411	291,872	308,040	49,521	9,358	554,598	278,594
Alabama.....	3,242	233	6,036	2,976	439	206	4,319	6,073	250	143	11,783	5,836
Alaska.....	273	7	192	62	9	3	314	103	49	1	25	10
Arizona.....	919	59	2,503	941	80	49	1,595	1,326	494	107	2,767	977
Arkansas.....	1,936	161	3,821	1,949	218	127	2,310	4,079	70	45	2,455	1,445
California.....	16,260	1,837	53,991	32,575	4,237	3,340	34,217	27,959	565	192	42,031	32,673
Colorado.....	2,735	212	4,954	2,132	333	150	3,131	3,863	197	46	6,192	3,402
Connecticut.....	1,372	191	5,839	2,185	392	299	3,953	3,468	161	88	11,622	4,124
Delaware.....	551	38	1,217	671	180	59	818	1,248	15	3	1,205	858
Dist. of Columbia.....	1,771	180	6,671	2,934	1,129	277	4,929	5,662	190	98	1,671	3,755
Florida.....	3,388	149	8,792	3,013	506	205	4,265	3,562	94	30	1,393	896
Georgia.....	3,815	317	11,172	4,945	874	260	6,240	8,247	345	120	6,270	6,986
Hawaii.....	431	20	658	257	30	35	1,144	385	8	3	618	112
Idaho.....	769	85	1,117	557	26	23	1,097	544	383	35	237	149
Illinois.....	6,454	660	19,705	10,371	2,339	1,152	11,310	10,603	1,211	329	16,404	8,649
Indiana.....	4,997	361	14,211	7,202	1,000	438	6,287	8,565	71	19	28,197	8,437
Iowa.....	4,163	232	8,230	3,772	451	250	3,703	5,200	39	2	7,477	4,259
Kansas.....	3,288	152	6,072	2,024	377	153	3,591	3,436	1,699	258	11,372	4,112
Kentucky.....	3,257	477	7,221	3,200	544	149	3,691	5,677	3,499	595	5,315	4,231
Louisiana.....	4,250	310	6,943	3,833	381	180	3,655	4,751	764	27	2,179	2,362
Maine.....	1,146	139	2,979	1,277	194	76	2,493	1,983	107	28	2,610	889
Maryland.....	2,993	242	6,826	3,934	665	272	8,727	4,297	57	3	3,066	2,087
Massachusetts.....	3,417	642	14,184	7,099	1,328	596	6,397	5,715	876	581	9,015	5,423
Michigan.....	6,318	1,189	20,210	9,859	1,599	848	10,161	11,654	12,392	1,041	21,584	8,543
Minnesota.....	6,107	718	15,836	8,388	1,029	535	7,491	7,635	1,551	296	23,855	8,656
Mississippi.....	1,419	105	2,782	1,141	140	50	1,734	2,553	11	2	1,136	1,531
Missouri.....	5,753	496	16,969	7,236	1,907	637	8,858	10,164	228	44	21,502	9,382
Montana.....	1,443	90	2,798	1,337	82	58	1,910	1,753	36	4	1,037	1,246
Nebraska.....	1,821	151	3,767	1,390	261	178	2,222	2,710	3,519	512	3,663	2,305
Nevada.....	311	23	786	384	13	16	571	395	164	54	67	132
New Hampshire.....	402	88	1,642	707	72	33	1,203	1,237	293	57	768	495
New Jersey.....	6,565	712	21,539	8,864	2,391	1,316	10,048	12,961	1,583	415	30,290	11,010
New Mexico.....	1,561	51	2,324	718	74	32	2,571	2,820	271	28	2,063	1,400
New York.....	23,578	3,998	67,374	29,032	15,505	4,870	43,924	36,171	6,735	1,219	106,266	50,813
North Carolina.....	1,710	170	6,600	4,209	360	133	3,540	6,649	624	626	1,607	3,184
North Dakota.....	1,130	108	2,657	914	88	39	1,729	3,543	94	3	998	1,300
Ohio.....	10,082	643	24,654	12,145	2,159	726	13,272	15,812	351	39	36,659	14,959
Oklahoma.....	3,250	225	7,147	3,204	497	256	4,080	6,038	2,340	469	10,255	5,197
Oregon.....	1,405	135	3,577	1,900	201	146	1,944	1,393	19	2	834	617
Pennsylvania.....	8,372	717	23,166	12,327	2,047	735	13,791	12,222	3,551	389	44,294	14,030
Rhode Island.....	539	128	2,733	1,714	159	139	1,587	1,399	90	35	2,525	1,913
South Carolina.....	1,586	71	3,291	1,181	127	59	1,684	2,762	22	4	744	1,255
South Dakota.....	808	47	1,868	677	121	31	1,736	2,094	752	167	3,286	2,815
Tennessee.....	3,701	305	9,825	4,888	679	275	6,769	9,250	431	851	8,034	7,525
Texas.....	14,100	1,094	31,167	15,729	1,753	1,057	15,421	20,730	274	169	7,357	8,964
Utah.....	978	74	1,741	887	99	62	1,313	802	243	6	3,454	1,229
Vermont.....	441	71	1,013	530	43	32	885	1,148	13	2	1,189	1,115
Virginia.....	1,484	93	5,056	3,310	310	92	2,222	3,078	71	21	2,174	2,675
Washington.....	3,940	297	9,725	6,460	585	423	5,054	4,459	67	11	10,850	4,139
West Virginia.....	1,355	92	2,448	1,337	171	46	1,733	2,729	26	-----	17,810	3,352
Wisconsin.....	5,084	266	10,515	5,081	557	271	5,589	6,539	2,588	127	15,808	6,695
Wyoming.....	739	20	816	395	22	17	644	596	38	12	585	445

*Industrial Characteristics of Applicants in Selected Areas*

Although the urgent needs of the defense program may result in stringencies of specialized skills, many of the difficulties which may arise are likely to be of a local character and can be alleviated by an

effective system of interstate transfer of workers. The geographic distribution of the persons actively seeking work through the public employment offices is of value in indicating the areas where workers with various types of industrial experience are located.

For summary purposes, the States were grouped in the following tables, into employing areas, i. e., areas with either fairly similar industrial characteristics or in which there is considerable exchange of labor across State lines. For example, Arizona was included with the Pacific coast because of the Arizona-California pattern of labor migration. In some instances, the inclusion of a State with one or another group had to be made on an arbitrary basis. Kentucky was included with the Middle Atlantic group, rather than the Great Lakes group, because the predominance of the coal industry in that State related it more closely to West Virginia in the Middle Atlantic group than to Ohio in the Great Lakes group. Similar groupings could have been made for other States but the change in the patterns for any given area would have been negligible in most cases. The groupings used in this analysis were as follows:

*New England:* Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont.

*Middle Atlantic:* Delaware, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and West Virginia.

*Great Lakes:* Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin.

*Southeast:* Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee.

*Southwest:* Arkansas, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Oklahoma, and Texas.

*Midwest:* Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota.

*Rocky Mountain:* Colorado, Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, Utah, and Wyoming.

*Pacific:* Arizona, California, Nevada, Oregon, and Washington.

*Territories:* Alaska and Hawaii.

The relative importance of the geographic areas in the industrial distribution of persons registered for work at public employment offices in April 1940 is shown in table 5.

TABLE 5.—Percentage Distribution of Registrants in Selected Industries, by Area

Area	Total	Manufacturing	Construction	Trade	Service	Agriculture, forestry, and fishery
All areas.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
New England.....	6.5	11.1	6.1	5.7	5.2	2.0
Middle Atlantic.....	29.5	32.8	27.1	27.9	29.0	11.6
Great Lakes.....	18.3	22.1	15.8	18.1	16.6	10.1
Southeast.....	11.3	11.5	11.8	9.6	11.3	24.5
Southwest.....	13.1	8.8	15.0	14.3	14.5	21.6
Middle West.....	6.6	3.5	9.6	6.4	6.4	11.0
Rocky Mountain.....	3.3	1.2	4.5	2.7	3.5	7.6
Pacific.....	11.2	8.8	9.8	15.2	13.2	11.4
Territories.....	.2	.2	.3	.1	.3	.2

The concentration of workers within each area with certain kinds of industrial experience is indicated in table 6. The distributions illustrate the industrial characteristics of each area, insofar as they are reflected by the industrial experience of registrants.

TABLE 6.—Percentage Distribution of Registrants Within Each Area, by Industry

Area	Total	Manufacturing	Construction	Trade	Service	Agriculture forestry and fishery	Other
All areas	100.0	27.0	12.4	14.6	11.8	8.7	25.5
New England	100.0	46.0	11.5	12.7	9.6	2.8	17.4
Middle Atlantic	100.0	29.9	11.3	13.8	11.6	3.4	30.0
Great Lakes	100.0	32.6	10.6	14.4	10.7	4.8	26.9
Southeast	100.0	27.5	13.0	12.4	11.8	19.0	16.3
Southwest	100.0	18.1	14.1	15.9	13.1	14.4	24.4
Middle West	100.0	14.2	18.2	14.2	11.4	14.6	27.4
Rocky Mountain	100.0	10.0	17.2	12.0	12.8	20.5	27.5
Pacific	100.0	21.3	10.8	19.8	13.9	8.9	25.3
Territories	100.0	28.5	15.4	10.6	17.7	8.3	19.5

The preponderance of manufacturing in New England is evidenced by the fact that nearly one-half the total registrants in that area had previously worked in that type of activity. In the Great Lakes, Middle Atlantic, and Southeast areas, 28 to 33 percent of the registrants were from manufacturing industries. The relative number of workers in each area with experience in construction trades and service industries was fairly similar.

TABLE 7.—Percentage Distribution of Occupations of Registrants, by Area

Area	Total	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Unskilled	Professional and managerial	Clerical and sales	Service	Agriculture forestry and fishery
All areas	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
New England	6.5	8.1	9.3	5.7	5.4	6.6	4.6	1.9
Middle Atlantic	29.5	30.0	32.7	28.6	34.1	32.2	29.0	10.8
Great Lakes	18.3	20.9	19.9	19.1	17.7	19.2	18.0	9.4
Southeast	11.3	9.0	10.3	12.2	7.5	7.7	10.6	24.8
Southwest	13.1	11.3	10.7	14.8	9.4	12.2	15.2	21.3
Middle West	6.6	6.3	5.1	6.9	6.9	6.3	6.3	11.4
Rocky Mountain	3.3	3.2	2.7	3.2	2.9	2.2	3.1	7.1
Pacific	11.2	11.0	9.2	9.1	16.0	13.4	13.0	13.2
Territories	.2	.2	.1	.4	.1	.2	.2	.1

The occupational characteristics of registrants in the various geographic areas reveal several dominant patterns. In general, the relative number of persons in each of the broad occupational classes in each area was roughly proportionate to the relative importance of each area in the whole distribution. The Middle Atlantic region had



the largest proportions of registrants in each of the occupational classes, with the exception of agriculture, forestry, and fishery. This area accounted for about a third of the registrants in each occupational class, which approximates the proportion of the entire active file of job seekers registered in this area. The Great Lakes area, which had about 18 percent of the total number of registrants, also had similar proportions among the various occupational groups, except for the agricultural group. The New England area, which included 6.5 percent of the total registrants, accounted for more than 9 percent of the semiskilled workers. The Pacific area had 16 percent of the professional and managerial group, but only 11 percent of total registrants. The Southeast and Southwest together accounted for about half the agricultural group, although the two areas combined represented only a quarter of the total registrants in the country.

The distribution of workers within each area according to the broad occupational classes reveals somewhat similar patterns for three regions—that represented by the New England, Middle Atlantic, and Great Lakes area, that composed of the Southeast and Southwest, and the region consisting of the Middle West, Rocky Mountain, and Pacific areas. The data on occupational distributions for these areas are shown in table 8.

TABLE 8.—*Percentage Distribution of Occupations of Registrants, Within Each Area*

Area	Total	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Unskilled	Professional and managerial	Clerical and sales	Service	Agriculture, forestry, and fishery	Other
All areas.....	100.0	19.3	19.9	20.7	3.3	12.9	12.3	8.7	2.9
New England.....	100.0	24.0	28.6	18.2	2.8	13.2	8.8	2.5	1.9
Middle Atlantic.....	100.0	19.6	21.9	20.1	3.8	14.1	12.0	3.2	5.3
Great Lakes.....	100.0	22.0	21.6	21.6	3.2	13.5	12.1	4.5	1.5
Southeast.....	100.0	15.5	18.1	22.4	2.2	8.9	11.6	19.1	2.2
Southwest.....	100.0	16.6	16.2	23.4	2.4	12.0	14.3	14.1	1.0
Middle West.....	100.0	18.4	15.4	21.8	3.5	12.4	11.9	15.2	1.4
Rocky Mountain.....	100.0	19.2	16.8	20.3	2.9	8.6	11.8	19.1	1.3
Pacific.....	100.0	18.8	16.4	16.7	4.8	15.5	14.2	10.3	3.3
Territories.....	100.0	18.7	11.8	39.6	2.3	12.5	9.8	4.7	.6

### Conclusion

Despite the increase in production of certain types of goods since April, the general level of employment has not changed markedly. It seems reasonable to assume, therefore, that, with few exceptions, the same type of workers are now available for placement as were seeking work early in April.

Since the inventory was taken in April, the number of registrants actively seeking work through the public employment offices has

reached 5.6 million. To some extent, the increase in the active files reflects a growing recognition of placement opportunities which public employment offices are expected to fill. Although the industrial, occupational, and geographic patterns revealed by the April 1940 inventory are generally valid for ordinary administrative and analytical purposes, it is quite likely that for certain specific areas and occupations the recent labor-market changes may have caused significant variation from the relations shown in the inventory data.



## LABOR POLICY OF NATIONAL DEFENSE ADVISORY COMMISSION

IN CONNECTION with the defense effort the National Defense Advisory Commission made the following announcement, on September 1, of the policy to be followed in regard to hours of work, wages, working conditions, and other questions relating to labor.

Primary among the objectives of the Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense is the increase in production of materials required by our armed forces and the assurance of adequate future supply of such materials with the least possible disturbance to production of supplies for the civilian population. The scope of our present program entails bringing into production many of our unused resources of agriculture, manufacturing, and manpower.

This program can be used in the public interest as a vehicle to reduce unemployment and otherwise strengthen the human fiber of our Nation. In the selection of plant locations for new production, in the interest of national defense, great weight must be given to this factor.

In order that surplus and unemployed labor may be absorbed in the defense program, all reasonable efforts should be made to avoid hours in excess of 40 per week. However, in emergencies or where the needs of the national defense cannot otherwise be met, exceptions to this standard should be permitted. When the requirements of the defense program make it necessary to work, in excess of these hours, or where work is required on Saturdays, Sundays, or holidays, overtime should be paid in accordance with the local recognized practices.

All work carried on as part of the defense program should comply with Federal statutory provisions affecting labor wherever such provisions are applicable. This applies to the Walsh-Healey Act, Fair Labor Standards Act, the National Labor Relations Act, etc. There should also be compliance with State and local statutes affecting labor relations, hours of work, wages, workmen's compensation, safety, sanitation, etc.

Adequate provision should be made for the health and safety of employees.

As far as possible, the local employment or other agencies designated by the United States Employment Service should be utilized.

Workers should not be discriminated against because of age, sex, race, or color.

Adequate housing facilities should be made available for employees.

The Commission reaffirms the principles enunciated by the Chief of Ordnance of the United States Army, during the World War, in his order of November 15, 1917, relative to the relation of labor standards to efficient production:

In view of the urgent necessity for a prompt increase in the volume of production \* \* \*, vigilance is demanded of all those in any way associated with industry lest the safeguards with which the people of this country have sought to protect labor should be unwisely and unnecessarily broken down. It is a fair assumption that for the most part these safeguards are the mechanisms of efficiency. Industrial history proves that reasonable hours, fair working conditions, and a proper wage scale are essential to high production. \* \* \* every attempt should be made to conserve in every way possible all of our achievements in the way of social betterment. But the pressing argument for maintaining industrial safeguards in the present emergency is that they actually contribute to efficiency.



## FOOD SUPPLIES AVAILABLE FOR CONSUMPTION

THE effect of the war on the food supplies abroad has aroused exceptional interest in the food situation in the United States from the point of view both of the ability of this country to meet possible demands from abroad and of the maintenance of adequate standards of living at home. Interest in the subject led the Bureau of Agricultural Economics to undertake a survey of prospective supplies of important foodstuffs in the United States during the next 12 months.<sup>1</sup>

The survey indicates (subject to possible modification on the basis of later crop reports) that abundant supplies of nearly all foodstuffs will be available for the coming year. It is particularly significant to note that recent production trends indicate a higher level of per capita consumption of food than in the years 1925-29.

It is stated by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics that, in estimating the amounts of food to be available for domestic consumption in 1940-41, the estimated total food supplies for the year were reduced by the prospective amounts of exports, by feed and seed requirements for certain crops, and by the minimum carry-over of stocks at the end of the year. The net supplies expected to be available are shown in table 1, with comparable figures for earlier years. Estimates of maximum supplies for 1940-41 are also given, these estimates being based on the assumption of no exports during the year and of minimum carry-overs at the end of the year.

<sup>1</sup> U. S. Department of Agriculture. Bureau of Agricultural Economics. The National Food Situation. Washington, August 1940. (Mimeographed.)



TABLE 1.—Summary of Indicated Food Supplies Available for Domestic Consumption<sup>1</sup> in 1940-41, and Comparisons With Previous Years

[Source: U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics]

Commodity	Unit	Average 1925-29	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	Indi- cated 1940-41 <sup>2</sup>	Maxi- mum avail- able 1940-41 <sup>3</sup>
Meats, other than poultry.....	Million lb.....	16,391	16,075	16,362	17,938	18,053	18,295
Poultry meats.....	Million lb.....	2,540	2,613	2,651	2,838	2,680	2,700
Eggs.....	Million eggs.....	38,827	40,458	40,185	40,600	40,000	40,200
Butter.....	Million lb.....	2,074	2,150	2,286	2,292	2,263	2,266
Dairy products other than butter, in terms of whole milk.....	Million lb.....	51,623	58,783	59,780	61,475	62,066	62,459
Lard.....	Million lb.....	1,509	1,442	1,606	1,775	2,000	2,380
Other domestic edible fats and oils.....	Million lb.....	1,881	2,645	2,250	2,370	2,500	2,575
Imported edible fats and oils.....	Million lb.....	338	487	545	415	370	370
Wheat <sup>4</sup> .....	Million bu.....	504	498	523	516	508	714
Rice <sup>4</sup> .....	Million lb.....	819	1,115	963	1,084	1,127	1,577
Fruits—							
Fresh.....	1,000 tons.....	6,865	9,068	8,942	9,152	9,834	10,133
Canned.....	Million cases of 24 No. 2's.....	51.6	85.1	88.9	98.9	100.0	105.0
Dried.....	1,000 tons.....	317.8	365.9	376.3	442.8	400.0	560.0
Vegetables—							
Fresh.....	1,000 tons.....	5,058	6,181	6,413	6,517	6,700	6,700
Canned.....	Million cases of 24 No. 2's.....	74.5	111.0	100.3	107.0	108.0	113.0
Potatoes.....	Million bu.....	204	334	312	307	315	315
Sweet potatoes.....	Million bu.....	50.6	61.9	62.9	60.0	57.0	57.0
Dry edible beans <sup>4</sup> .....	Million bags.....	10.2	12.3	13.3	13.0	13.0	14.0

<sup>1</sup> In calculating the total supplies of the various classes of foods available for domestic consumption, no account was taken of the quantities which usually are lost or wasted in the marketing process, and, therefore, these data should not be assumed to represent actual consumption.

<sup>2</sup> Total supplies less estimated exports and probable carry-over into 1941-42. In the case of wheat, rice, potatoes, sweetpotatoes, and dry edible beans, the quantities expected to be used for seed and feed are also deducted.

<sup>3</sup> Total supplies less a minimum carry-over into 1941-42 with no allowance for exports. In the case of wheat, rice, potatoes, sweetpotatoes, and dry edible beans, the quantities expected to be used for seed and feed are also deducted.

<sup>4</sup> Includes varying quantities shipped to noncontiguous territories.

A comparison of current consumption with consumption in earlier periods requires that the growth of population be taken into account. Estimates of per capita food supplies available for domestic consumption in 1940-41 and in previous years are given in table 2.

The estimated per capita supply of meats other than poultry is approximately the same as the 1925-29 average. A few of the food products included in table 2 show slight declines in per capita supplies, but these are in harmony with the recent trends of dietary habits. There has been a slight decline for a number of years in the proportions of certain foods, notably wheat flour and potatoes, that enter into the prevailing diet, but there has been a large increase in the per capita consumption of such foods as dairy products, rice, vegetables, fruits, dry edible beans, and edible fats and oils other than lard. The figures of table 2 as a whole indicate a significant rise in per capita consumption and standards of living during the past decade.

TABLE 2.—Summary of Indicated per Capita Food Supplies Available for Domestic Consumption in 1940-41 and in Previous Years, and Percent of Change from 1925-29 Average Supplies <sup>1</sup>

[Source: U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics]

Commodity	Per capita quantities (in pounds)					
	Average 1925-29	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	Indicated 1940-41 <sup>2</sup>	Maximum available 1940-41 <sup>3</sup>
Meats other than poultry.....	137.7	124.3	125.7	136.7	136.7	138.5
Poultry meats.....	21.3	20.2	20.4	21.6	20.3	20.4
Eggs.....	40.8	39.1	38.6	38.7	37.7	38.0
Butter.....	17.4	16.6	17.6	17.5	17.1	17.2
Dairy products other than butter, in terms of whole milk.....	433.8	454.6	459.1	468.6	469.8	472.8
Lard.....	12.7	11.2	12.3	13.7	14.9	17.7
Other domestic edible fats and oils.....	15.8	20.5	17.3	18.1	18.9	19.5
Imported edible fats and oils.....	2.8	3.8	4.2	3.2	2.8	2.8
Wheat <sup>4</sup> .....	254.1	231.0	241.0	236.0	230.7	324.3
Rice <sup>4</sup> .....	6.9	8.6	7.4	8.3	8.5	11.9
Fruits, fresh.....	115.4	140.3	137.4	139.5	148.9	153.4
Fruits, canned.....	13.0	19.7	20.5	22.6	22.7	23.8
Fruits, dried.....	5.3	5.7	5.8	6.8	6.1	8.5
Vegetables, fresh.....	85.0	95.6	98.5	99.3	101.4	101.4
Vegetables, canned.....	18.8	25.8	23.1	24.5	24.5	25.6
Potatoes.....	148.2	155.0	143.8	140.4	143.1	143.1
Sweetpotatoes.....	23.4	26.3	26.6	25.2	23.7	23.7
Dry edible beans <sup>4</sup> .....	8.6	9.5	10.2	9.9	9.8	10.6

Commodity	Percent of change from 1925-29 average				
	1937-38	1938-39	1939-40	Indicated 1940-41 <sup>2</sup>	Maximum available 1940-41 <sup>3</sup>
Meats other than poultry.....	-9.7	-8.7	-0.7	-0.7	+0.6
Poultry meats.....	-5.2	-4.2	+1.4	-4.7	-4.2
Eggs.....	-4.2	-5.4	-5.1	-7.6	-6.9
Butter.....	-4.6	+1.1	+6	-1.7	-1.1
Dairy products other than butter, in terms of whole milk.....	+4.8	+5.8	+8.0	+8.3	+9.0
Lard.....	-11.8	-3.1	+7.9	+17.3	+39.4
Other domestic edible fats and oils.....	+29.7	+9.5	+14.6	+19.6	+23.4
Imported edible fats and oils.....	+35.7	+50.0	+14.3	0.0	0.0
Wheat <sup>4</sup> .....	-9.1	-5.2	-7.1	-9.2	+27.6
Rice <sup>4</sup> .....	+24.6	+7.2	+20.3	+23.2	+72.5
Fruits, fresh.....	+21.6	+19.1	+20.9	+29.0	+32.9
Fruits, canned.....	+51.5	+57.7	+73.8	+74.6	+83.1
Fruits, dried.....	+7.5	+9.4	+28.3	+15.1	+60.4
Vegetables, fresh.....	+12.5	+15.9	+16.8	+19.3	+19.3
Vegetables, canned.....	+37.2	+22.9	+30.3	+30.3	+36.2
Potatoes.....	+4.6	-3.0	-5.3	-3.4	-3.4
Sweetpotatoes.....	+12.4	+13.7	+7.7	+1.3	+1.3
Dry edible beans <sup>4</sup> .....	+10.5	+18.6	+15.1	+14.0	+23.3

<sup>1</sup> In calculating the per capita consumption of the various classes of foods, no account was taken of the quantities which usually are lost or wasted in the marketing processes, and therefore, these data should not be assumed to represent actual per capita consumption. The population figures are the July 1 estimates of the Bureau of the Census through 1938 with unofficial estimates of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics for the later years.

<sup>2</sup> Per capita total supplies less estimated exports and probable carry-over into 1941-42. In the case of wheat, rice, potatoes, sweetpotatoes and dry edible beans, the quantities expected to be used for seed and feed are also deducted.

<sup>3</sup> Per capita total supplies less a minimum carry-over into 1941-42, with no allowance for exports. In the case of wheat, rice, potatoes, sweetpotatoes, and dry edible beans, the quantity expected to be used for seed and feed are also deducted.

<sup>4</sup> Includes varying quantities shipped to noncontiguous territories.

## *Foreign Wartime Policies*

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### WARTIME APPRENTICESHIP REGULATION IN AUSTRALIA<sup>1</sup>

SPECIAL wartime regulations covering the terms of employment for apprentices have been adopted in Australia. Under the National Security (Apprenticeship) Regulations recently issued, the contract of an apprentice who is absent from his usual employment, owing to war service, for a period of more than one week, is deemed to be suspended during the period of absence. The contract may remain suspended, or may be revived or canceled, in accordance with the provisions of the regulations issued by the Commonwealth Government. The regulations apply to periods of absence both prior to, and since, their adoption.

Apprentices who have been away from their usual employment owing to war service not exceeding four months' duration at any one time are entitled to have their contracts of apprenticeship revived immediately. The period of absence is not counted as a portion of the term of apprenticeship. If the period of absence exceeds four months at any one time, the apprentice may apply to an apprenticeship authority for revival of the contract, within two months after the expiration of the war service.

The apprenticeship authority must then notify the employer that the employee has applied for reinstatement. If the employer no longer possesses the facilities for proper apprentice training, he may lodge an objection, within 14 days after receipt of the notice. After considering such an objection, and unless it is upheld, the apprenticeship authority is empowered to determine the date upon which the contract is to be revived, and may vary the provisions of the contract in accordance with the authority's judgment as to what is just and equitable. From the effective date, the contract must be revived, subject to any variations that the apprenticeship authority may establish.

Where an employer proves that he does not possess the facilities to train apprentices, the apprenticeship authority may authorize the transfer of the contract to another employer; or, if such transfer is not practicable, the contract may be canceled. Cancellation is also authorized in cases of failure on the part of the apprentice to apply for reinstatement under the prescribed procedure, unless such

<sup>1</sup> Victorian Employers' Federation. Industry and Trade, Melbourne, July 1, 1940.



failure is the result of mistake, absence from Australia, or other reasonable cause.

Any apprentice who during his war service has received instruction in the trade in which he is apprenticed, may receive credit for it, notwithstanding the provisions of the regulations. However, written order from the appropriate governmental authority must be obtained.

Employers are permitted to employ substitute apprentices while regular apprentices are on war duty. The number of apprentices who may be employed by an employer and the proportion of apprentices to journeymen are subject to limitations fixed by the emergency apprenticeship regulations. If an apprentice is entitled to reinstatement in his regular employment, he is entitled to absolute preference over any person engaged in his absence, and the employer may not refuse to permit him to resume his employment.

The provisions of the regulations apply alike to trainees employed without written contracts and to apprentices. An apprenticeship authority is defined as any person or body authorized by a minister, through notice in the Gazette, to exercise and perform the powers and functions of an apprenticeship authority under these regulations.



## WAR MEASURES IN CANADA <sup>1</sup>

### *National Registration*

IN ACCORDANCE with the duty imposed upon it by the National Resources Mobilization Act, the Canadian Department of National War Services carried out a Dominion-wide registration on August 19 to 21, 1940. The registrars in each constituency (the geographical basis on which the registration was conducted) will classify the cards of all unmarried men into age groups 19 to 45 and forward them to the district registrar's office where they will be tabulated and indexed, thus making available a record of all single men, by age groups.

The military authorities will decide on the number of men whom it is planned to train within the year in the Dominion, and the Department of National Defense will report to the Department of National War Services on the number of men it desires to call up for training at any one period.

As soon as practicable after it is determined what year classes will have to be called to meet the initial demand of the Department of National Defense, a proclamation will be issued informing all persons within these classes, beginning with the 21-year-old class, that they will be called for service within a specified time. The object of this proclamation is to give each man an opportunity to adjust his affairs before reporting for war service.

<sup>1</sup> Canadian Labor Gazette (Ottawa), August 1940.

Furthermore, every single, medically fit male between the ages of 21 and 45 may be compelled to take military training within 12 months. However, it is possible that the needs of the Department of National Defense may be met by calling unmarried men from 21 to 35 years of age and that during the first year it may not be necessary to go beyond this age class. It was authoritatively intimated that probably eight calls would be made within the year and that the age groups would be drafted in consecutive order.

Employers are required to supply their respective district registration boards with lists of all single men between 21 and 45 years of age.

Any industry is entitled to submit a plan to the district registrar for the calling up for military training, within the stipulated period of 1 year, of its single male employees. The plan so submitted must provide for the training of all their employees within the year but can be adjusted by the industries in such a way as to enable all to be trained within the year in a manner which will interfere in the least possible way with the conduct of the business of the industry. The men subject to call from any industry shall be divided into equal groups so that the same number of men will come up for training on each call. The district registration board will approve or reject plans submitted.

To insure the efficient operation of seasonal industries, the Department of National War Services will furnish the board in each military district with a list of the principal seasonal industries within such board's jurisdiction and the periods during which it is inexpedient to take men from such industries for training. Moreover, it shall be the board's duty so to arrange the call of men within its jurisdiction as to interfere as little as possible with the carrying on of seasonal industries.

All employers will be obliged, under penalty, to place employees back on their jobs when their training period has expired or in jobs equivalent to those held previous to the period of training.

### *Technical Training for War Industries*

Reports received at the close of July 1940 indicate that the project to train production workers for industries carrying on war-contract work has had the greatest cooperation from Provincial governments, local school boards, and employers. The registration by classes of the 6,820 trainees enrolled in 62 schools was as follows:

Machine shop, including bench fitting	2, 353
Welding	836
Sheet metal	296
Aircraft manufacturing	1, 255
Woodworking	417
Pattern making	260
Foundry work	161
Electrical	276
Motor mechanics	420

Drafting.....	184
Aero engines.....	104
Air riggers.....	35
Instrument makers.....	22
Women's projects.....	201

In the majority of classes in woodworking, sheet metal, and welding, the instruction is planned to train men for the aircraft-manufacturing industry. In many of the schools the students are being trained for specific occupations with local establishments under arrangements made between the employers and the schools.

Efforts have been made to secure the industrial placement of those trained by the project, through the cooperation of the Employment Service of Canada, special youth-training placement officers, employers, and the school staffs.

A very small proportion of the first enrollment consisted of older men who made application for refresher courses in their previous occupations. The training period ranges from 44 to 48 hours per week for courses of from 8 to 12 weeks.

Besides the training for war industries, special classes have been started, at the request of the military authorities, for men in the technical branches of the armed forces. More than 100 men have been enrolled for instruction in electricity, motor mechanics, Diesel engines, machine shop, and marine engineering.

### *Additional Price Controls*

The Dominion Wartime Prices and Trade Board is charged with seeing that no advantage is taken of the war exchange tax to raise prices unduly. This tax is 10 percent on all imports except those included under the British preferential tariff. The Special War Revenue Act, as amended by Parliament, provides that—

No person shall take advantage of the tax imposed by this section to increase the price of goods by an amount greater than is justified by any increase in cost properly arising from such tax or to maintain prices at levels higher than are so justified and, where the Wartime Prices and Trade Board reports to the Governor in Council that, in its opinion, any person has so taken advantage, the Governor in Council may, upon the recommendations of the said Board, for such period of time as he may determine, impose upon all or any of the goods produced, sold, or dealt in by such person an excise tax at a rate not to exceed 10 percent of the selling price of such goods, remove or reduce customs duties applicable thereto, fix the prices thereof and take or authorize the said Board to take such other measures under the Wartime Prices and Trade Board Regulations as the said Board may recommend; and, for the purpose of investigation and any recommendation by the said Board and for the purpose of preventing any such advantage from being taken by any person, the said Board shall have in respect of any such person and goods the powers conferred on it from time to time by such



regulations as if such goods were necessities of life as therein defined, and the taking of any such advantage shall be deemed to be an offense against this act and such regulations, and the penalties prescribed in such regulations shall extend and apply to such offense.

According to an order in council (P. C. 3722) of August 5, 1940, the Wartime Prices and Trade Board ordered, on August 6, that the maximum prices of bread would be those prevailing on July 23, 1940, previous to the imposition of the wheat-processing tax, and that the maximum prices of flour would be those prevailing on the same date with an addition of 35 cents a barrel.

Millers were ordered to share with bakers the 70-cent levy per barrel involved by the 15-cent tax on wheat milled for domestic use. The order became effective August 7.

The Board stressed that it would have preferred to gather more complete data before its first formal price-fixing of a necessary of life, but in view of the combined action of bakers in a Western city in immediately raising bread prices, the Board felt that prompt action was required. The order is regarded as a temporary measure but is applicable throughout the Dominion until the Board is able fully to investigate the facts and find out more definitely how the milling and baking industries have been affected by the wheat-processing tax.

### *National Defense Tax*

Canada's Income War Tax Act has been amended to provide for a national defense tax on every person residing in or earning an income in the Dominion, whose income is more than \$600 per annum, if single and without dependents; or more than \$1,200 if married or a widow or widower with a dependent child or a person maintaining a domestic establishment and supporting a dependent in that establishment.

The tax is 2 percent, except for unmarried persons with no dependents and annual incomes exceeding \$1,200, who pay 3 percent. "A tax credit of \$8 is allowed in respect of each dependent. The amount of tax payable is not permitted to reduce the income of the taxpayer below the minimum fixed above, \$600 or \$1,200, as the case may be."

The taxes payable by employees are to be deducted by their employers from salaries or wages, beginning with those earned or accruing due during and subsequent to July 1940. Every taxable employee must file with his employer a return in the proper form in regard to his personal status and dependents. Should he fail to do so, his tax will be deducted at the rate for a single person with no dependents.

## *Collective Bargaining*

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### MILITARY-SERVICE PROVISIONS IN UNION AGREEMENTS

A NUMBER of recent union agreements include provisions regarding the seniority and reemployment rights of workers who leave their jobs to enter military service. In some of the agreements the rights apply only if the United States is at war or is in an emergency approximating war conditions. Although some cover only workers who are conscripted, others include those who volunteer as well. These provisions are usually limited to military duty, but combat relief service and Government civilian service are included in a few instances.

The extent of a worker's rights under these provisions varies. Sometimes there is simply a statement that seniority previously acquired is not lost because of military duty. In other cases seniority with the company continues to accrue during such service. Such provisions give the worker the right to claim a job with the company in preference to junior employees. Other agreements make reemployment compulsory after military service is completed. In some cases the reemployment right is contingent upon physical and mental fitness or an honorable discharge. It is generally understood that the worker must apply for reemployment within a reasonable time after discharge, and some agreements specify the time limit.

Examples of military-service provisions are given below:

Should it become necessary for any employee to leave the service of the company to serve the Federal Government in its Army, Navy, or in Federal mobilization for war purposes, then such employee shall retain and accrue his seniority during such service, provided he returns to the employ of the company within 30 days after his demobilization. Voluntary service with Federal forces after opportunity for demobilization is offered shall deprive such employee of seniority.

Any employee who is called into active service, or who in time of war volunteers in the armed forces of the United States, shall be given a leave of absence for, and will accumulate seniority during such period of service, and upon termination of such service will be reemployed provided he has not been dishonorably discharged and is physically able to do available work in line with his seniority, at the current rate for such work, and provided that he reports for work within 60 days of the date of such discharge.

Employees entering the military or naval service, Red Cross or other combat relief service, or conscripted civilian service, of the U. S. A. in time of war—will be considered on leave of absence, and will be offered employment upon honorable discharge from the service at the termination of war.

Any employee who may enlist or be drafted into the armed forces of the United States Government in time of war, or a state of emergency akin to war, shall be reemployed at the close of the war or state of emergency, without loss of seniority; provided that said employee shall receive an honorable discharge from the armed forces, and provided further that he shall be mentally and physically qualified for reemployment.

Seniority shall be considered broken and all rights of the person as an employee terminated when he or she \* \* \* is out of the service of the company for one year or more unless engaged in military or naval service of the United States during time of war \* \* \*. Any such employee, however, must be able to pass physical examination before being returned to service.

Any employee who has been off the pay roll of the company for a period of 60 days shall lose all former seniority rights unless such absence is due to compulsory jury duty, compulsory military or naval duty, sickness, or lay-off.

In case of war, any man called to the service of his country will hold his seniority.

Men with seniority standing who volunteer, or are drafted into war service for the United States, shall retain their seniority standing; and shall have their service time credited to their seniority standing in their respective departments. Such men who apply for employment within 6 months after their discharge from service of any branch of our national defense shall be rehired in accordance with their seniority.

*Resolved*, That if, during the life of this agreement, any employees should be called to the service of their country because of war, they shall not lose their seniority rating during their absence, and upon their return, if such employees are physically and mentally fit for employment, the company will offer them work of a like kind that they were engaged in before entering the service.

The above is effective providing the employee returns and makes application for work within 3 months after his discharge from the service.

In the event of a declared or undeclared war in which the United States takes part, an employee who serves his country will return, after the war is over, to his position with no loss of seniority.



## SHIFT OPERATIONS UNDER UNION AGREEMENTS<sup>1</sup>

THE question of night work arises in many industries and trades. In those industries which directly serve the public, working schedules necessarily must be related to the prevailing consumer habits. Places of entertainment, for instance, must be open during the evening, and with the exception of movie houses in the larger cities, one evening (or night) shift prevails. Union agreements for retail trade and for barber shops usually prescribe the hours when the establishment is to be open for business, as well as the actual hours of work for individual employees. Restaurants may work two or even three shifts, or may maintain one shift with broken schedules to care for rush periods. Some filling stations operate on a 24-hour basis, with two or three

<sup>1</sup> Prepared by Roy M. Patterson of the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division, under the direction of Florence Peterson, chief.



shifts. In the case of utilities and city passenger transportation, a minimum force is maintained on a 24-hour basis, with addition of workers during certain well-defined peak periods.

In manufacturing and mining, the question of shift operations has little direct relation to consumer habits but depends more upon the plans for utilization of production facilities. Some types of industrial processes necessitate continuous operations, not only throughout the day but from week to week. More often, however, it is a question of lowering production costs by the addition of the night shifts. In an industry such as clothing, where plant equipment and initial investment are a relatively low, and the wage bill a relatively high, proportion of the cost of production, the impetus toward night work is less than in industries where the plant and machinery are very costly.

Two- and three-shift operations are far more likely to be put into effect in times of heightened industrial activity than in periods of depression. Some plants operate for a few months of the year on a 2- or 3-shift basis, tapering off to a period of virtual or complete shut-down. Industries which have experienced a chronic problem of overproduction may try through mutual agreement to restrict the addition of extra shifts, even during busy periods. The textile industry is a case in point.

Faced with such variations, employees through their union organizations have always attempted to regulate the operation of shifts to work the least possible disadvantage for those workers obliged to follow abnormal working schedules. The following is a summary of the various types of regulations embodied in the 7,000 union agreements in effect throughout the country, which are now on file with the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

### *Prohibition or Restriction of Night Shifts*

In many industries more than one shift has never been operated and consequently no shift regulations are in the agreements. Only a small proportion of the agreements which mention shift arrangements entirely prohibit night shifts. The prohibitions are generally found in industries where production facilities at present are considered to be overexpanded, where there are wide seasonal fluctuations, where unemployment is acute, and where the industrial processes do not require continuous operations. Practically all of the men's and women's clothing industry, for example, operates on a 1-shift basis. Some agreements in the laundry, fur, furniture and a few other industries also prescribe 1-shift operation.

In building construction 1-shift operation is the general rule, except for maintenance and repair work in occupied premises. In

a few instances an exception is made for work under a building contract containing a time-penalty clause. The union agreements usually establish 1-shift operations by requiring that overtime rates be paid for any work performed prior to the regular starting time or after the regular quitting time.

There are a few instances where only a third shift is prohibited. In the textile industry a few agreements specifically provide that the third shift be abolished "for the benefit of the industry." In the hosiery industry, also, some of the agreements eliminate the third shift for certain operations.

Another type of provision eliminating the third shift is found in a few agreements negotiated by the Boilermakers, Iron Ship Builders, Welders and Helpers of America—a requirement that, if 24-hour operation is desirable, two 12-hour shifts shall be employed. Since overtime rates for work on these shifts are applicable after the first eight hours, such an arrangement is likely to occur only in establishments where 24-hour operations are not normally worked.

In an industry where employment depends upon contract work secured by the employer, an effort to regularize the employment is sometimes made by prohibiting shift work, except at overtime rates, unless the job is of a specified minimum duration. A few agreements covering ship repairing, for example, require that there shall be no night work away from the shipyard unless the job is of at least 10 days' duration.

Under a number of agreements, especially in the hotel and restaurant and laundry industries, women may not work after certain hours at night. Legislation in several States also prohibits night work by women in some industries and occupations.<sup>2</sup>

In order that earnings of individual workers may not fall too low, the addition of new shifts is sometimes prohibited until existing shifts are working a specified number of hours per week. This provision is at times made a part of a work-sharing plan providing for distribution of work equally or at some predetermined ratio among workers on the first, or first two shifts. A laundry agreement, for example, requires that the first shift shall work 40 hours per week before a second shift is permissible and that the second is to get a minimum of 30 hours work per week. Similarly, a few textile agreements provide that work shall be shared equally between the first and second shifts and that a third shift may not be added until the first two are working full time or a certain proportion of full time.

With the restriction upon the addition of new shifts there frequently is a provision for the elimination of the second or third shift when operations fall below a certain level. In some agreements it is pro-

<sup>2</sup> For a full analysis of State labor laws for women, see U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Bulletin No. 156-II: State Labor Laws for Women.

vided that there shall be no curtailment of hours for employees on the first and second shifts until the third shift is abolished. The second shift may also be eliminated in this way.

Maritime agreements provide for discontinuance of the sea watches for one 8-hour shift while vessels are in port, although watches usually are kept on the day of arrival and of departure.<sup>3</sup> Exceptions are made for such work as is necessary for the safety of the vessel, passengers, crew or cargo while in port.

Because of the nature of their employment, stagehands, motion-picture-machine operators, actors, etc., must work at night, and virtually none of them receive night differentials. Agreements of actors and stagehands sometimes specify the number of performances per week and require extra pay for any additional ones. Motion-picture-machine operators usually work in shifts, but agreements of these workers rarely contain provisions applicable especially to night workers. Vaudeville agreements usually provide a maximum either of number of performances or of hours per day and per week.

### *Continuous Operations*

In many manufacturing establishments operating less than 24 hours per day there are certain jobs or operations which by their nature are continuous. Workers on these jobs must be in constant attendance throughout the day and during the time when regular shifts are not working. Among the jobs of this type are those of watchmen, firemen, and other maintenance or repair workers, as well as workers on special processes which cannot be interrupted.

In plants operating one or two shifts less than 24 hours per day, workers on jobs requiring continuous operation are, in most union agreements, exempt from the hours limitation applicable to the other workers. Also, the overtime rates applicable to others after a certain hour, as 10 p. m., do not apply to continuous-operation workers.

In some agreements workers on continuous-operation jobs have the same maximum workweek as other workers but in any single day may work longer than the workday of regular production workers without being paid the overtime rate. In other agreements the daily hours of continuous-operation workers are the same as all other workers, but the weekly maximum is slightly greater. The regular workweek may be 40 hours, for instance, while continuous operation workers may have a workweek of 42 hours before overtime begins. Another variation is to require 6 days of work instead of 5 for these employees, but to reduce daily hours so that the weekly maximum

<sup>3</sup> Except for a few employees on day work on all vessels, and except for vessels on certain inland routes where the runs are of short duration, the 24 hours of the day are divided, while at sea, into a series of watches, so that the period of continuous duty is relatively short. In the deck and engine departments, including radio operators when at least three are carried, the day is divided into 4-hour watches with one 8-hour period of rest between each two watches. Purser and stewards do not work on a watch basis.



is the same. In a few agreements the daily and weekly hours of all workers are the same.

Continuous-operation workers customarily work on Sundays and holidays without extra pay. However, if these workers are required to report on their regular days off, they are paid in the same manner as other workers are paid for Saturday and Sunday. In the printing of holiday editions of daily newspapers, union agreements frequently make some special pay provisions to compensate workers who must work on the holiday.

### *Differentials for Shift Work*

A considerable number of agreements provide for an hour or a wage differential for shifts other than the regular day shift. If the former is established, shift workers are paid the same daily or weekly wages as day workers but work a smaller number of hours per day or week; if the latter, workers on the second or third shift work the same number of hours as regular day workers but are paid at a higher rate.

The principal object of requiring shift differentials, from the standpoint of the union, is to compensate workers for the unusual, perhaps inconvenient, hours of work. Restriction of shift work, as a general rule, is not the purpose of shift differentials, although there may be occasions when the higher wage rates or shorter hours will discourage an employer from putting on extra shifts.

A wage differential for shift work is distinct from overtime rates for hours beyond the regular limits for any job. Regular shift differentials are substantially less than the overtime rates and, while a deterrent, generally are not prohibitive of shift work. Further, workers on all shifts are paid overtime rates for overtime work, whereas shift differentials are paid only to workers on evening or night shifts.

The differential may be required for all shifts other than the day shift, for the third shift only, or for any shift beginning or ending before or after specified hours. An agreement negotiated with a manufacturer of automobile and aircraft parts, for example, requires that a 5-cent differential be paid for all shifts starting after 12 o'clock noon. Frequently, any work between certain hours, as 6 p. m. and 6 a. m., is classified as shift work and is paid for at the premium rate. Other agreements provide that if any part, or if a stated proportion, of a regular shift falls between certain hours, the differential shall be paid for the full shift.

Differentials in the number of working hours for second and third shifts are much less common than wage-rate differentials. Typical

provisions require a full 8 hours' pay for a working period of from 6½ to 7½ hours on the second or third shifts. Agreements negotiated by the American Communications Association with the Mackay Radio & Telegraph Co. and with Postal Telegraph provide for a differential in hours with no lowering of pay. Under the Mackay agreement there is a time differential of 1 hour for workers in city traffic offices assigned between 10 p. m. and 6:30 a. m. In the Postal Telegraph agreement there is a differential of one-half hour for the early night shift and 1 hour for the late night shift. A few agreements negotiated by the International Association of Machinists with employers in various industries similarly reduce hours on the second and third shifts a half hour or an hour.

Shift workers are sometimes given certain privileges not enjoyed by other workers. For example, under some agreements workers on the second or third shifts are given one or two extra rest periods of 10 or 15 minutes each. Also, in a number of agreements shift workers are given a lunch period, frequently of 30 minutes, without any loss of working time, whereas for day workers the lunch period is excluded from hours of work. Several agreements provide that during 1- or 2-shift operations, all lunch periods must be taken on the workers' own time, but when three shifts are operated, the lunch periods on all shifts are included in hours of work.

According to the agreements on file with the Bureau, shift differentials commonly range from 5 cents to 10 cents per hour, or, if stated on a percentage basis, from 5 percent to 10 percent over the regular rate. The actual differential paid is not uniform throughout any industry, but a policy of paying a wage differential of some kind is common in the unionized section of a number of industries, among them being automobile manufacture, newspaper printing, and shipbuilding. Wage differentials are not unusual in the unionized sections of several other industries or occupations, such as aircraft manufacture, rubber, electrical, and radio manufacture, commercial telegraphy, bakery, newspaper editorial employees, boilermakers, and machinists.

A number of agreements which require differentials for both the second and third shifts also require a slightly higher differential for the third shift than for the second. A typical provision may require a 5 percent differential for the second shift and 10 percent for the third. Many agreements, of course, require the same differential for both shifts and a few require a differential for only the third shift.

Where the shift differential is stated as a percentage of the earnings, overtime premiums may be either included or excluded from the calculation of the differential. Many agreements merely set the differential as a proportion of the regular rate, with no statement concerning overtime.

Agreements covering plants where 1-shift operation is common provide in very rare instances that if a second shift is added, workers on the first as well as the second shift shall receive extra pay. An agreement in the full-fashioned hosiery industry prohibits more than two shifts and requires, when footers operate on a 2-shift basis, that a bonus of 6.5 percent of total earnings be paid to footers on each shift and that the workweek of double-shift footers be reduced from the regular 40 hours to 37½. A few textile agreements contain statements that "it is for the best interests of all concerned to bring about a greater elimination of night work", and require, for night work on any loom, a differential of 15 percent of the gross earnings of the night worker, 10 percent of which is paid to the night worker and 5 percent to the day worker on the same loom.

A combined wage-rate and hours differential is unusual in union agreements. Under a provision of this type daily or weekly wages for shift workers are greater than for day workers and working hours of shift workers are shorter. An example is the newspaper agreement of the New York Italian Typographical Union, which establishes a normal workday of 6 hours, excluding lunch, with 4 shifts if 24-hour operation is desired. For the second shift the wage differential is \$2.70 per week; for the third the differential is \$3.90 over the first; for the fourth shift the differential is \$5.10 over the first; and the fourth shift works 5½ consecutive hours, or half an hour per day less than the other shifts.

Under most agreements, all workers on a shift are paid whatever differential is required by the agreement. A few agreements, however, set certain conditions for receiving the differential. An agreement in the aluminum industry prescribes a "night" differential of 5 cents per hour for all workers with 6 months' seniority, except foundry workers. One agreement, negotiated with an automobile manufacturer, restricts the payment of a 5-percent differential on the second and third shifts to those workers who are "regularly employed." Under another agreement in the automobile industry, workers on "hourly and salaried jobs set up on a 24-hour basis" are excluded from a 7-percent differential for the second and third shifts. Other workers such as powerhouse employees, firemen, watchmen, and engineers, sometimes are not paid the differential.

#### SHIFT DIFFERENTIALS IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES

*Aircraft manufacture.*—More than half of the agreements in aircraft and parts manufacture on file with the Bureau require the payment of shift differentials. The Bendix Products Division of the Bendix Aviation Corporation pays 5 cents per hour extra for the second and third shifts, while the Zenith Carburetor Division of the same corporation pays 5 cents per hour for all shifts starting after 12 o'clock



noon. The Beech Aircraft Corporation agreement established a 2½ cent differential for the third shift, while the Consolidated Aircraft Corporation has a 5-cent differential for night work. The Consolidated agreement also gives a 5-cent hourly bonus to employees whose regular working time includes both Saturday and Sunday. One agreement requires the payment of a differential of 5 cents for the second shift and of 10 cents for the third. It also establishes a 5-cent an hour differential for staggered shifts. Agreements negotiated with the Boeing Aircraft Co. and the St. Louis Airplane Division of the Curtiss-Wright Corporation require, for the third shift, that 8 hours' wages be paid for 6¾ hours of work.

*Automobile manufacture.*—Agreements negotiated with automobile manufacturers generally require the payment of wage differentials. Under the General Motors agreement, a night-shift premium of 5 percent of night-shift earnings, including overtime premiums, is paid to all hourly rate employees on shifts half or more of the working time of which is scheduled between 6 p. m. and 6 a. m. The same differential is paid by the Chrysler Corporation to all regularly employed workers on the second and third shifts, and by the Briggs Manufacturing Corporation to hourly rate workers on regular second and third shifts starting after 2 p. m. At the South Bend plant of the Studebaker Corporation, according to the agreement, any regular shift ending between 10:30 p. m. and 8:15 a. m. is night work and is paid for at 10 percent above the day rate. The premium rate does not apply to day men staying until 11:00 p. m.; these workers are paid at the overtime rate for time in excess of their regular hours.

According to the Nash agreement, all workers except powerhouse employees and watchmen are paid 5 cents per hour in addition to the regular rate if they are employed on the second or third shifts or on regular shifts starting before 6:00 a. m. The differential, accordingly, is paid to all workers employed between 3 p. m. and 6 a. m., except regular day shifts. Packard workers on the afternoon or midnight shifts also receive 5 cents per hour extra for time on these shifts.

Provision for shift differentials is not so widespread in the machine-shop and automobile-parts manufacturers' agreements as in the other automobile agreements. Nevertheless, a substantial number of the agreements require differentials ranging from 3 cents to 10 cents per hour, with 5 cents being the most common. In a few agreements the differential for the third shift is greater than for the second.

*Newspaper printing.*—Among the printing trades in newspaper publishing, night work is common and most of the agreements contain provisions for wage-rate differentials.<sup>4</sup> Agreements in 72 cities, according to a recent survey made by the Bureau, provided an average

<sup>4</sup> For a more complete discussion of the printing trades, see U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 675: Union Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions in the Printing Trades, June 1, 1939.

shift differential of 10.9 cents per hour. The actual differentials ranged as high as 66.7 cents per hour, and nearly half of the night workers had differentials in excess of 8 cents per hour. The photoengravers had the greatest average differential (21.1 cents) among the separate trades. The pressmen, pressmen in charge, stereotypers, and mailers all had average differentials exceeding 10 cents per hour. The lowest average differential was that of machine operators, 7.9 cents per hour.

Hours at night are shorter than hours on the day shift in approximately 20 percent of the agreements. A smaller number—not more than 10 percent—provide still shorter hours for the third or “lobster” shift. The workday of the second shift is generally about one-half hour shorter than the day shift and the third shift may be shortened still another half-hour.

The hours that are to be considered day work and night work are usually specified in the agreements. For instance, typographical agreements usually classify as day work all that performed between 7 a. m. and 6 p. m., while night work is that between 6 p. m. and 7 a. m. Where a third shift is worked, the hour limits for this shift may also be specified.

*Shipbuilding.*—Most of the agreements in the shipbuilding industry require shift differentials of from 5 percent to 10 percent of the day rates. A 10-percent differential is paid by Los Angeles Dry Dock, Bethlehem Shipbuilding Corporation at its San Pedro yard, and several other companies. Five percent is paid by the New York Shipbuilding Corporation, Federal Shipbuilding and Dry Dock Co., Pusey & Jones Corporation, Maryland Dry Dock Co., and American Shipbuilding Co. The last company, however, guarantees the bonus only on repair work. Todd-Johnson Dry Dock, Inc., and another company pay 5 percent for the second shift and 10 percent for the third. Other companies pay 5 cents per hour for the second shift, some paying 25 cents per hour extra for the third shift.

Only a few of the agreements on file provide for an hours differential; workers on the second or third shifts occasionally are given two extra rest periods of 15 minutes each.

### *Rotation of Shifts*

Shift rotation instead of differentials is provided in some agreements. In this way all workers involved share equally whatever shift or night work there may be. Usually, shift rotation is adopted only in establishments which regularly operate two or three shifts a day. In the establishments which add extra shifts for short peak seasons, a policy of shift rotation is unlikely, since new and temporary workers would be the ones involved.

In a small number of agreements scattered throughout several industries there are provisions which permit the workers by majority vote to decide whether or not shifts shall be rotated. In some of these agreements the decision must be made by all the workers in the plant. In other agreements, the various departments or other appropriate units within the plant may exercise their choice independently of the rest of the plant. In a few agreements it is provided that the union and the employer shall work out a plan whereby shifts may be rotated.

During a period of changing from one shift to another, a worker may be required to work two consecutive shifts. In this situation an exception is sometimes made to the requirement of penalty rates for overtime. According to agreements covering a majority of the workers in the flat-glass industry, for example, workers may be required to work one additional shift without overtime payment at the time of shift rotation.

A very small number of agreements provide penalties for an employer who does not arrange for rotation of shifts at certain intervals. An agreement in the cement industry, for example, prescribes that an employee shall be paid 5 cents per hour extra if required to work on the night shift continuously for more than 8 weeks.

In a number of industries—steel and flat glass, for instance—rotation of shifts is the prevailing practice. In public power plants there are certain jobs requiring 24-hour attendance, and a number of agreements negotiated by the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers with electric power companies require rotation, at least in some departments. The agreements usually indicate in which departments or occupations shifts are to be rotated. Other examples of industries in which at least some of the agreements require rotation include coke and gas processing, and petroleum refining. Drug-store employees and employees in certain departments of the telegraph companies also rotate shifts, under a few agreements.

### *Choice of Shift*

In a number of agreements, workers are given an opportunity to select shifts according to their seniority. If there is no wage or hours differential or other pecuniary consideration, the time factor alone will govern the workers' choice. In bituminous-coal mining, for example, differentials are not provided in the agreements, but in filling vacancies on the day shift night men have preference over new men.

Differences in earning possibilities, however, frequently are a consideration in the choice of shifts. For instance, in occupations in which tips are a part of earnings, the shift coming at the time when tips are



greatest is likely to be most desirable. Similarly, in the railroad and city passenger transportation industries,<sup>5</sup> the desirability of a "run" is determined, first, by the probable earnings and, second, by the time of the day during which the run is operated.

According to general practice, workers in these two industries choose their runs on the basis of seniority. At periodic intervals the schedule of runs is posted by the employer and a "pick" is held. In city passenger transportation systems, picks are held three or four times a year and also when there is a vacancy or change of schedule. In large systems a system-wide pick may be held once or twice a year, and division, depot, or line picks at more frequent intervals.

A number of commercial telegraph agreements provide for assignments by seniority. A few of the agreements in the automobile and shipbuilding industries permit workers to choose shifts on the basis of seniority. In aircraft manufacture and also in the automobile industry, a small number of the agreements qualify seniority with the requirement that "the efficient operation of the plant is not to be interfered with."

### *Miscellaneous Provisions*

*Nonappearance of shift partners.*—Where continuous operations are being maintained, a worker usually must remain at his post until his shift partner appears. A worker who is not relieved may therefore be required to work for two consecutive shifts. Unless there is a provision in the agreement to the contrary, a worker generally is paid at the overtime penalty rate for work beyond his regular shift. However, some agreements contain special overtime provisions applying to extra work caused by the nonappearance of a relief worker.

Agreements in the paper and pulp industry, as an example, frequently provide that "tour workers" (that is, those employed on operations scheduled in advance for at least 24 hours' continuous running) must not leave their positions until relieved. In many of these agreements the extra shift that may be required is paid for at straight time. Several of the agreements provide that if the relief worker does not appear, the employer must see that meals are sent for. Some of the agreements in petroleum refining permit work at straight time if the relief worker fails to appear unless the employer is given notice varying from 2 to 24 hours. If proper notice has been given, the extra work is paid for at overtime rates.

<sup>5</sup> In the railroad and city passenger transportation industries, shifts do not exist as elsewhere. Instead the available work is divided into "runs" or "tours of duty," which are determined by the necessary train, streetcar, or bus schedules. Wage rates are generally on an hourly or mileage basis, or a combination of these. A regular run is, roughly, the equivalent of a day's work, but in any transportation system the runs vary both in the period of time required for their completion and in their length in miles. The definition of the working day is useful primarily in the calculation of overtime, for most runs are shorter or longer than the regular workday. Above the prescribed minimum, earnings on any run will vary with the length of the run.

According to the Pittsburgh Plate Glass and Libbey-Owens-Ford agreements, a worker may be required to work in excess of the regular 6-hour day but not more than 8 hours in 24 without the payment of overtime. This 2-hour overtime exemption applies only when a relief worker fails to report or is unable to remain at work. The extra hours may be required of the worker on either the preceding or following shift.

*Notice of shift change.*—A number of agreements provide that, if the employer fails to give notice of a change in shift schedule, work on the new shift shall be considered overtime for a period equal to the length of the notice required. In baking, electric power, coke and gas and other industries, notices ranging from 1 day to 1 week are required by some of the agreements. A few agreements in petroleum refining, for example, provide that 40 hours' notice be given when workers are ordered to report before the regular starting time of the shift.

*Temporary exchange of shifts.*—Under a small number of agreements, workers may exchange shifts temporarily, for their own convenience. Almost invariably the prior consent of management must be secured, and frequently it is required that the temporary transfer must be accomplished without extra cost to the employer and without interfering with production.

*Split shifts.*—Split shifts are prohibited by the agreements in many industries and trades, but are permitted in a few. Hotel and restaurant workers and city passenger transportation workers, for example, because of multiple peak periods during the day, frequently work split shifts or "tricks." Hotel and restaurant agreements commonly permit only one split in a shift and a shift, under most of the agreements, must be completed within 12 hours. A few other agreements permit spreads ranging from 10 to 13 hours. Some of the agreements provide that the spread limitation for women shall be an hour or two less than for men.

In city passenger transportation, a majority of the runs generally must be straight and split runs must be completed within a spread limit, most commonly 13½ hours. A few agreements provide that a stated proportion of the split runs must be completed within a shorter spread than the others. For example, one agreement requires that 75 percent of the split runs be completed within 11 hours and that all be completed within 12.

*Intervening hours between shifts.*—The question of time for rest between shifts arises in only a few industries, principally in transportation. In most agreements the requirement of overtime penalty rates usually assures workers of adequate time off before reporting for their next regular shift.

In the railroad industry, the hours in train and engine service are limited by law to a total of 16 within a 24-hour period. According to safety regulations of the Interstate Commerce Commission, drivers of motor vehicles engaged in interstate commerce, except in certain emergencies, may not be permitted or required to drive for more than an aggregate of 10 hours in any period of 24 consecutive hours, unless the driver be off duty for 8 consecutive hours during or immediately following the 10 hours aggregate driving and within the 24-hour period. It is provided, however, that two periods of rest or sleep in a berth on the vehicle, which meets at least minimum specifications, may be cumulated to give the total of 8 hours off duty.

In city passenger transportation a number of the agreements require that workers be given a period of rest between tours of duty. Most frequently the requirement is for a period of 8 consecutive hours off duty. Several agreements, however, provide that workers on duty later than 10 p. m. or 11 p. m. may not be called for a morning assignment. Aside from the transportation industry there are only scattered instances of a period of rest being required by the agreement. A few bakery agreements and a small number of others specify periods for rest of 4, 8, 12, or 16 hours between shifts. Generally, of course, a period of rest is automatically provided through the assignment of employees to a particular shift in every 24-hour period.



## Labor Conferences

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### MEETING OF STATE LABOR OFFICIALS, 1940

THE keynote of the 26th annual meeting of the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials which has held in New York City, September 7-12, 1940, was the program for national defense. The committee reports stressed the need for continued vigilance and progress in upholding and expanding the social gains made during recent years. The reports covered minimum wages, apprentice training, social security, women in industry, child labor, wage-claim collection, industrial home work, civil service, machine-safety requirements, factory inspection, and small loans.

The discussions were devoted mainly to the operation of State labor laws, the Social Security Act, the National Labor Relations Act, and the Fair Labor Standards Act, and the functions of the State labor agencies as they affect the national defense program.

The resolutions adopted by the conference were as follows:

#### *International Labor Organization*

Whereas one of the purposes of the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials is "to maintain and promote the best possible standards of law enforcement and administrative method," and this purpose is in harmony with one of the principal functions of the International Labor Organization, and

Whereas the International Labor Office is now, through the generous cooperation of the Canadian Government, transferring a large part of its personnel from Geneva to Montreal, and

Whereas the achievement of a democratic peace will involve the problem of reabsorbing into civilian activities the millions of workers throughout the world now under arms or engaged in the production of armaments, and

Whereas the maintenance of world peace must rest upon an economic basis which makes adequate provision for the welfare of all workers,

Therefore the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials

(1) Welcomes to this continent the members of the staff of the I. L. O. and records its pleasure that their coming will facilitate and encourage cooperation and the exchange of information between the I. L. O. and the members of the I. A. G. L. O.

(2) Affirms its conviction of the vital importance, at a time when democratic institutions are threatened throughout the world, of upholding the International Labor Organization as a link between the democratic forces of its member countries and as an agency for the maintenance and improvement of labor standards on the basis of free cooperation between employers, workers, and governments.

(3) Recommends that the International Labor Organization put its best activity into working out a program for the maintenance of world peace based upon recognition of the underlying necessity for adequate provision for workers' welfare everywhere and offers its cooperation in working out such a program and securing its adoption here.

*Factory inspection*

*Be it resolved*, That the recommendations of the Committee on Factory Inspection as hereinafter set forth be and they are hereby adopted as the recommendations of the Twenty-sixth Annual Convention of the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials.

1. The establishment of regular training courses for factory inspectors within the State or through cooperation with the U. S. Department of Labor.
2. Establishment of weekly or other similar periodical meetings or conferences for the purpose of training and educating factory inspectors as to the latest developments in industry and the resulting hazards created thereby.
3. Adoption of health and safety regulations or safety codes which will stand as a guide to manufacturers of industrial machines and equipment and as a practical set of rules for efficient enforcement by the factory inspector.
4. Promulgation and adoption of rules by the Secretary of Labor under the Walsh-Healey Act enforceable in all States wherein Government contracts are awarded, and in which no State codes or rules have been enacted and where inadequate coverage exists.
5. Cooperation between State agencies or State labor departments, particularly the divisions of factory inspection and the National Committee for Conservation of Man Power in Defense Industries.
6. Creation and establishment of industrial hygiene units within State labor departments for the control and elimination of occupational diseases.
7. Creation and establishment within the Bureau of Labor Standards of the U. S. Department of Labor of a unit empowered to set up uniform procedures in the control and elimination of occupational disease hazards. The adoption of standard methods of sample collection and analysis in the study and elimination of occupational disease. The drafting of uniform codes toward the elimination of occupational disease and the dissemination of information on pertinent subjects relative to the cooperation of Federal and State agencies in the field of industrial hygiene.
8. Active support by all State labor departments and administrators of Senate Bill No. 3461 commonly known as the Murray Bill.

*Minimum wage*

Whereas efforts are already being made in the name of patriotism to relax legal regulations that have been built up over a long period of years for the protection of labor; and

Whereas many millions of workers yet uncovered by either State or Federal minimum-wage laws will be in dire need of such legal protection if living costs should rise as a result of the national defense program; and

Whereas the extension of the benefits of existing State minimum-wage laws to additional workers, either through amendment of such laws or through the issuance of new wage orders under them, involves large financial outlays far beyond the present budgets of departments administering such laws: Now, therefore, be it

*Resolved*, That the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials go on record as opposing any efforts to limit the protection of minimum-wage laws, State or Federal, by weakening amendments during the coming legislative sessions; and be it further

*Resolved*, That the protection of minimum-wage legislation be extended as rapidly as is practical to all workers as yet uncovered by such laws; and be it further

*Resolved*, That the members of this association from States now operating under State minimum-wage laws use every effort to secure such appropriations for the

minimum-wage divisions of their States as will make possible the extension of minimum-wage benefits to additional workers through the issuance of new wage orders and through the proper enforcement of the same.

#### Youth labor standards

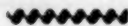
In a program of national defense it is of paramount importance to safeguard and promote the health, safety, and morale of its workers, in particular of its youthful workers, while they are being introduced to industry and seasoned in its processes.

This conference, therefore, emphatically urges that at no point shall there be relaxation of the legal standards which have been built up for the protection of young workers from too early or too hazardous employment, or that otherwise safeguard them, on the job or in training.

Attention is called to the fact that experience has shown that such safeguards are not only for the good of the individual but tend to increase production.

We deplore the efforts of a bureau of the New York State Department of Education to break down legal safeguards for young workers. Such a move we believe to be based upon an unfortunate lack of information as to the facts and the more important issues involved.

The officers for the coming year are: Frieda S. Miller, *president*; Voyta Wrabetz, *1st vice president*; E. I. McKinley, *2d vice president*; C. H. Gram, *3d vice president*; Morgan R. Mooney, *4th vice president*; L. D. Currie, *5th vice president*; Isador Lubin, *secretary-treasurer*.



#### MEETING OF INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENT BOARDS, 1940

THE twenty-seventh annual meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions was held in Richmond, Va., September 9-12, 1940. The outstanding topics of discussion were how to speed up payments of compensation to injured workers, how to reduce controversy, and how to simplify administrative procedure. It was recognized that the reason for placing workmen's compensation administration in the hands of administrative boards rather than in the courts was the need for speed and simplicity, and that if these administrative bodies permitted their procedures to become entangled in legalisms, they would lose their reason for existence. Another problem discussed dealt with payments to alien dependents under war conditions in Europe and the chance that such dependents might get little or none of the money awarded for industrial deaths in the United States. A panel of physicians discussed methods of measuring permanent disabilities, and round table discussions dealt with problems of State funds.

The officers elected for the next year were: C. K. Newcombe, Commissioner, Manitoba Workmen's Compensation Board, Canada, *president*; William Chesnut, Director, Bureau of Workmen's Compensation, Pennsylvania, *vice president*; and V. A. Zimmer, Director, Division of Labor Standards, United States Department of Labor, *secretary-treasurer*.



# Employment and Labor Conditions

## CANADIAN CENSUS OF MANUFACTURES, 1938

EVERY year the Canadian Bureau of Statistics takes a census by mail, which includes data on mines, fisheries, railways, etc., and general manufacturing. Preliminary findings for all manufacturing industries for 1938 have now been made public. The following table summarizes the statistics on manufacturing, including number of establishments, invested capital, and number of salaried and wage-earning employees, together with average salary and wage of these workers.<sup>1</sup>

*Manufacturing Industries in Canada, 1933 and 1936-38*

Item	1933	1936	1937	1938	Percent of change, 1938 as compared with 1937
Number of establishments.....	23,780	24,202	24,834	25,200	+1.5
Capital invested.....	\$3,279,259,838	\$3,271,263,531	\$3,465,227,831	\$3,485,683,018	+6
Number of employees on salary..	86,636	104,417	115,827	120,589	+4.1
Salaries.....	\$139,317,946	\$173,198,057	\$195,983,475	\$207,386,381	+5.8
Average salary.....	\$1,608	\$1,659	\$1,692	\$1,719	+1.6
Number of employees on wages..	382,022	489,942	544,624	521,427	-4.3
Wages.....	\$296,929,878	\$438,873,377	\$525,743,562	\$498,282,208	-5.2
Average wage.....	\$777	\$896	\$965	\$956	-.9
Cost of materials.....	\$967,788,928	\$1,624,213,996	\$2,006,926,787	\$1,807,478,028	-9.9
Value of production.....	\$1,954,075,785	\$3,002,403,814	\$3,625,459,500	\$3,337,681,366	-7.9
Value added by manufacture....	\$919,671,181	\$1,289,592,672	\$1,508,924,867	\$1,428,286,778	-5.3

## DECLINE OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN CANADA

THE war has affected Canadian economic conditions in various ways, one being a marked improvement in the unemployment situation. In April 1939 the estimated number of wage earners unemployed was 473,000—an increase of 66,000 over April 1937. In April 1940, however, the estimated number of unemployed was 367,000—a decrease of 106,000 in 12 months. The table below gives the estimates of unemployment among wage earners for the first 4 months of 1929, of 1933, and of each year 1937 to 1940.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Canadian Labor Gazette (Ottawa), June 1940.

<sup>2</sup> The Royal Bank of Canada, Montreal, July 1940, pp. 1, 2: Employment in Canada.

*Estimated Unemployment Among Wage Earners in Canada, 1929, 1933, and 1937-40*

January-April—	Estimated number of wage earners—			
	Total	Employed	Unemployed	
			Number	Percent of total
1929.....	2,427,000	2,298,000	129,000	5.32
1933.....	2,351,000	1,641,000	710,000	30.19
1937.....	2,583,000	2,142,000	441,000	17.07
1938.....	2,658,000	2,225,000	433,000	16.30
1939.....	2,669,000	2,183,000	486,000	18.21
1940.....	2,718,000	2,338,000	381,000	14.02

In April 1940 the estimated number of employed wage earners was 2,353,000, as compared with 2,383,000 in the same month in 1929, but based on the average for the first 4 months of the year the employment situation in 1940 was substantially better even than in 1929, the number of wage earners at work in the later period setting a new peak for the Dominion.

Excluding all enlisted men, the number employed in the first 4 months of 1940 averaged 2,338,000 as compared with 2,298,000 for the same period in 1929. This rising volume of employment has as yet created no general labor shortage, but numerous industries report a serious dearth of skilled artisans.

Many factories and technical schools are now actually engaged in training apprentices in order to overcome shortages in specialized workers. Meanwhile those presently employed are working longer hours, a condition which may continue for some time in spite of increases in trained apprentices, due to the rapid acceleration of Canada's industrial war effort and the withdrawal of men from industry for training under the National Resources Mobilization Act. The increase in the number of employed wage earners between March and April this year was 49 thousand. A rise in employment is usual at that time of year as a result of seasonal influences, and although the increase this year was about the same as in 1938 and considerably less than in 1937, it was almost double that which occurred in 1939 and well above the average for the past 10 years.

The Dominion's official employment index for the first half of 1940 was 115.2—the peak for the period; the corresponding indexes for 1929 and 1930 were 113.3 and 111.45, respectively. The average for 1939 was 107.6. Although the index for each of the first 4 months of 1940 reached a new high, the indexes for May and June of that year—114.3 and 120.9—were 1.6 and 1.1 percent below the 1929 levels.

The rise in industrial employment has been general throughout Canada, all the Provinces reporting improvement. All branches of industry have shared in the gains, except construction, in which a shrinkage was reported as a result of the reduction of highway work. The greatest increases were in Ontario and Quebec on account of the heavy concentration of the war-supply industries in those Provinces.

## LABOR AND WELFARE PROVISIONS OF CUBAN CONSTITUTION, 1940<sup>1</sup>

WAGES, hours, employment of women and minors, occupational organizations, industrial relations, cooperatives, family estates, social insurance, and restrictions on employment of aliens are covered by the new Cuban Constitution approved for publication on July 5, 1940. The section on labor points out that the enumeration of rights and benefits therein does not exclude others which are derived from the principle of social justice and shall be applied equally to all factors involved in the process of production; and that the State shall use its resources to furnish employment to everyone who lacks it and to secure to each manual or intellectual worker the economic conditions necessary for a worthwhile existence.

Discriminatory practices of any kind, with regard to employment, are prohibited. In the reduction of personnel, as well as in the creation of new jobs and the establishment of new factories and industries, employers must (subject to penalty by law) distribute the jobs without distinction as to race or color, among persons who are qualified for the work.

### *Wages and Hours*

Every manual or intellectual worker in public or private employment shall be guaranteed a minimum salary or wage, to be determined on the basis of the conditions in each region and the normal needs of the worker for his physical, moral, and cultural well-being, and considering him as the head of a family. The law shall establish the manner of fixing minimum salaries and wages periodically, by means of commissions with equal representation of employers and workers for each branch of labor, in accordance with the standard of living and with the peculiarities of each region, and of each industrial, commercial, or agricultural activity. For work paid for by the piece, by contract, or by lump sum, rates must be such that the minimum daily wage is normally assured. The minimum salary or wage is unattachable, except for family responsibilities in the form the law establishes. The worker's tools are also unattachable. Equal pay is due for equal work, regardless of the person performing the work. No discount not authorized by law may be made from salary or wage. Amounts due the workers for payments in cash and kind earned in the last year shall have precedence over all other credits. Payment by tokens, merchandise, or any other form of exchange substituted for legal tender is absolutely prohibited. Day workers shall receive their pay at periods not to exceed 1 week.

The maximum working day shall not exceed 8 hours, and may be reduced to 6 hours for persons from 14 to 18 years of age. The

<sup>1</sup> Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial* (Habana), July 8, 1940.



maximum workweek shall be 44 hours, with pay for 48 hours, except in seasonal industries, for which legislation will be enacted later. All manual and intellectual workers have a right to a month's paid vacation in each calendar year. Persons who have not worked 11 months during the year are entitled to a paid vacation proportioned to the period worked. Employers shall be required to pay their personnel for the four national holidays, on which days, industrial, commercial, and public-entertainment establishments are to be closed. Other holidays shall be "official," but shall be so celebrated as not to suspend the economic life of the Nation. No enterprise may discharge a worker without notice and without the other formalities to be established by law, which shall also determine just cause for dismissal.

### *Work of Women and Minors*

The law shall determine the working conditions of salaried and wage-earning woman employees. No distinction shall be made as regards work between single and married women. A pregnant woman may not be dismissed from her work; nor shall work be required of her which demands considerable physical exertion, within 3 months of childbirth. Six weeks' leave with pay shall be compulsory both before and after childbirth, during which the worker shall retain her position and all the rights connected with it and with the labor contract. During the lactation period she shall be granted, daily, two extra rest periods of half an hour each, to nurse her infant.

Work and apprenticeship of children under 14 years are prohibited. In all industries and classes of work in which technical skills are required, apprenticeship shall be compulsory in the form determined by law. The working day may be reduced to 6 hours for persons from 14 to 18 years of age.

### *Occupational Organizations and Labor Relations*

The constitution affirms the right of employers, employees of private concerns, and workers to organize for economic-social activity. The competent authority shall have a period of 30 days in which to admit or refuse registration of an employer or worker organization. Registration, to be regulated by law, shall determine the legal personality of the organization. Organizations cannot be permanently dissolved without court action. Recognition is accorded the right to strike or lock-out, to be regulated by law. The law shall also regulate the system of collective agreements, which will be binding upon both employers and employees. Any provisions, whether expressed in a labor contract or in some other pact, which involve the diminution or renunciation of any right accorded to the workers by this constitution or by the laws, are null and void.

The problems which arise from relations between capital and labor shall be submitted to conciliation commissions upon which employers and workers shall be represented equally. The law shall designate the judicial official who shall preside over such commissions and the national court before which their resolutions shall be reviewed.

### *Protection of Nationals and Restrictions on Employment of Aliens*

Native Cubans shall have a preponderance both in classes of employment and in total pay roll; naturalized Cubans with families born in Cuba shall have preference in employment over other naturalized Cubans, and over aliens. In filling indispensable technical positions, aliens are excepted from these conditions, in accordance with provisions of the law, provided that apprenticeship in the technical work thus excepted is open to native Cubans. The preponderance of Cubans can never be less than that established in the law of November 8, 1933 (50 percent), and the rights acquired by native Cuban workers before the promulgation of this constitution under the terms of that law are irrevocable.

The importation of contract labor, as well as any immigration that tends to lower the standard of working conditions in Cuba, is prohibited.

The law shall determine what professions, crafts, and businesses require certificates, and the manner of obtaining such credentials; the State shall assure preference in public services to citizens officially prepared for them. Professions, with certain specified exceptions, shall be practiced solely by native Cubans and persons who have been naturalized 5 or more years before applying for authorization to practice, but by special law Congress may suspend this provision temporarily when, for reasons of public advantage, the cooperation of alien professional or technical personnel is deemed necessary or advisable in the encouragement of public or private movements of public interest.

The law shall restrict the purchase and possession of land by aliens and foreign companies, and shall adopt measures which will tend to restore the land to Cubans.

In all public and private schools, instruction in Cuban literature, history, and geography, and in civics and the constitution, shall be given by native Cuban instructors, using textbooks by authors who are native Cubans. Only Cuban citizens shall hold specified public offices. The boards of directors of occupational associations must be composed exclusively of native Cubans.

*Social Insurance and Welfare*

A social-security system shall be established, to be supported by the Government, employers, and workers, for protection against invalidity, old age, unemployment, and other labor contingencies, in the manner prescribed by law; also, retirement for length of service and survivors' benefits shall be established. These schemes shall be governed by mixed boards, selected by employers and workers with the assistance of a representative of the Government, except in the case of the Social Insurance Bank, which is to be created by the State. Workmen's compensation for industrial accidents and for occupational diseases is also compulsory, and is to be supervised by the State and financed entirely by the employers. Funds and reserves of social-insurance schemes cannot be transferred nor can they be used for other purposes.

Social assistance shall be established under the direction of the Ministry of Health and Social Assistance. Hospital, sanitary, forensic, and other positions which are necessary adequately to organize the corresponding official services shall be established. The welfare institutions of the State, the Provinces, and the municipalities shall furnish free services only to the poor. To secure compliance with the social legislation the State shall provide for the oversight and inspection of enterprises.

Pensions and survivors' benefits for persons employed in the service of the State, Provinces, and municipalities are to be based on the needs of the recipients; persons who have private income from their own property can receive only such part of the retirement or survivors' benefit as, when added to the private income, will not produce a total in excess of the maximum allowed by law—2,400 pesos per year. The amounts to be paid each month shall be based on sums available in the treasury, but are not to be less than 50 percent of the basic amount allowed by law nor less than the minimum daily wage established in conformity with this constitution.

The law shall determine the enterprises which, because of employing workers outside the centers of population, shall be required to furnish adequate housing, schools, infirmaries, and other services needed for the physical and moral well-being of the worker and his family, and shall prescribe the conditions which factories and working places of all kinds must meet.

Mutual aid is recognized as a social principle and practice, and the law shall regulate its functioning so that while people of modest resources may enjoy its benefits it shall at the same time serve as a just and adequate protection for those engaged in the professions.



### Other Provisions

*Cooperatives.*—The law shall facilitate the formation of commercial, agricultural, industrial, consumers', and any other kind of cooperatives, and shall so regulate them that they shall not serve to evade the labor provisions of this constitution.

*Family estates.*—The father of a family, who resides upon, cultivates, and exploits directly a rural property which he owns, valued at not to exceed 2,000 pesos, may irrevocably declare it a family setate, so that it cannot be taken from use for his living and support; it shall be exempt from taxes, and inalienable and unattachable except for responsibilities incurred prior to this constitution. Improvements or additions which exceed 2,000 pesos shall be subject to taxation in the form determined by law. In order to operate such property the owner may promise or give in guaranty, sowings, plantings, or crops of the same.

## Employment Outlook

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### TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR EMPLOYMENT IN IRON MINING

THE amount of merchantable iron ore produced per man-hour rose from 0.526 gross ton in 1915 to 1.402 tons in 1937, an increase of 167 percent. The amount of merchantable ore produced rose from 55,526,000 tons in 1915 to 72,094,000 tons in 1937, an increase of 30 percent. The increase in production, combined with reductions in hours of work, in part counteracted the displacement of workers resulting from the increased output per man-hour, but the number of workers employed in 1937 was only 25,945, in contrast to 43,385 in 1915. These facts, together with discussions of various other circumstances affecting employment in iron mining, are presented in a recent study of this industry.<sup>1</sup>

The iron-mining industry is one of the most highly variable of the major American industries. This is indicated by the fact that the amount of merchantable ore produced has ranged as high as 75,289,000 gross tons, the figure for 1917, and as low as 9,847,000 tons, the amount produced in 1932. The production in the year 1937 was 72,094,000 tons of merchantable ore, a figure almost as high as the 1917 figure. The amount of labor required per ton in 1937 was only 35 percent of the amount in 1917, and only about 43 workers were employed in 1937 to every 100 employed in 1917, in spite of a considerable reduction in hours of work.

<sup>1</sup> U. S. Work Projects Administration. National Research Project. Mineral Technology and Output Per Man Studies, Report No. E-13; Technology, Employment, and Output Per Man in Iron Mining, by N. Yaworski, O. E. Kiessling, C. H. Baxter, Lucien Eaton, and E. W. Davis. Washington, 1940. This report is one of a series by the National Research Project, under the direction of David Weintraub, on Re-employment Opportunities and Recent Changes in Industrial Techniques.

*Estimated Production, Employment, and Average Output in Iron Mines and Beneficiating Plants in the United States, 1880 to 1937<sup>1</sup>*

Year	Production (thousands of gross tons)			Employment		
	Crude ore	Merchantable ore		Average number of workers	Shifts per man	Hours per man-shift
		Gross amount	Iron (natural) content			
1880.....	(2)	7, 120	3, 648	35, 000	231	(2)
1889.....	(2)	14, 518	7, 443	36, 341	248	(2)
1902.....	(2)	35, 554	(2)	44, 800	260	(2)
1915.....	60, 882	55, 526	(2)	43, 385	272	(2)
1916.....	82, 161	75, 168	(2)	57, 049	274	8.9
1917.....	82, 869	75, 289	(2)	60, 594	280	9.0
1918.....	77, 447	69, 658	(2)	55, 674	293	9.1
1919.....	67, 612	60, 965	(2)	51, 780	280	9.1
1920.....	75, 514	67, 604	(2)	50, 590	287	9.2
1921.....	33, 246	29, 491	(2)	32, 348	209	9.1
1922.....	53, 736	47, 129	(2)	35, 758	250	9.1
1923.....	80, 670	69, 351	34, 970	41, 294	286	8.9
1924.....	61, 459	54, 267	27, 082	38, 765	263	9.1
1925.....	70, 475	61, 908	31, 091	35, 757	270	9.0
1926.....	75, 944	67, 623	34, 099	34, 399	273	8.9
1927.....	69, 923	61, 741	30, 880	34, 755	264	9.0
1928.....	70, 941	62, 197	31, 150	30, 238	265	8.9
1929.....	83, 165	73, 028	36, 638	30, 763	281	8.9
1930.....	68, 552	58, 409	29, 365	30, 975	259	8.9
1931.....	35, 564	31, 132	15, 625	22, 867	201	8.9
1932.....	11, 182	9, 847	4, 948	12, 649	145	9.0
1933.....	21, 226	17, 553	8, 778	15, 125	140	8.5
1934.....	28, 253	24, 588	12, 384	16, 513	193	8.0
1935.....	35, 368	30, 540	15, 362	14, 987	219	8.0
1936.....	54, 856	48, 789	24, 684	20, 306	227	8.1
1937.....	80, 906	72, 094	36, 411	25, 945	247	8.0

Year	Average output (gross tons)								
	Crude ore			Merchantable ore					
				Gross amount			Iron (natural) content		
	Per worker	Per man-shift	Per man-hour	Per worker	Per man-shift	Per man-hour	Per worker	Per man-shift	Per man-hour
1880.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	203	0. 882	(2)	104	0. 452	(2)
1889.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	399	1. 613	(2)	205	. 827	(2)
1902.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	794	3. 052	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
1915.....	1, 403	5. 156	0. 577	1, 280	4. 702	0. 526	(2)	(2)	(2)
1916.....	1, 440	5. 254	. 584	1, 318	4. 807	. 534	(2)	(2)	(2)
1917.....	1, 368	4. 883	. 540	1, 243	4. 437	. 490	(2)	(2)	(2)
1918.....	1, 391	4. 751	. 521	1, 251	4. 273	. 469	(2)	(2)	(2)
1919.....	1, 306	4. 670	. 516	1, 177	4. 211	. 465	(2)	(2)	(2)
1920.....	1, 493	5. 194	. 566	1, 336	4. 650	. 507	(2)	(2)	(2)
1921.....	1, 028	4. 926	. 544	912	4. 369	. 482	(2)	(2)	(2)
1922.....	1, 503	6. 001	. 676	1, 318	5. 263	. 593	(2)	(2)	(2)
1923.....	1, 954	6. 838	. 750	1, 679	5. 878	. 645	847	2. 964	0. 325
1924.....	1, 585	6. 024	. 673	1, 400	5. 319	. 594	699	2. 655	. 297
1925.....	1, 971	7. 291	. 816	1, 731	6. 405	. 717	870	3. 217	. 360
1926.....	2, 208	8. 083	. 902	1, 966	7. 197	. 803	991	3. 629	. 405
1927.....	2, 012	7. 619	. 853	1, 776	6. 727	. 753	889	3. 365	. 377
1928.....	2, 346	8. 858	. 994	2, 057	7. 766	. 871	1, 030	3. 889	. 436
1929.....	2, 703	9. 628	1. 079	2, 374	8. 454	. 947	1, 191	4. 241	. 475
1930.....	2, 213	8. 529	. 957	1, 886	7. 267	. 816	948	3. 654	. 410
1931.....	1, 555	7. 737	. 869	1, 361	6. 773	. 761	683	3. 399	. 382
1932.....	884	6. 117	. 681	778	5. 387	. 599	391	2. 707	. 301
1933.....	1, 403	10. 005	1. 184	1, 161	8. 274	. 979	580	4. 137	. 490
1934.....	1, 711	8. 867	1. 109	1, 489	7. 717	. 965	750	3. 887	. 486
1935.....	2, 360	10. 789	1. 346	2, 038	9. 317	1. 162	1, 025	4. 686	. 585
1936.....	2, 701	11. 880	1. 473	2, 403	10. 566	1. 310	1, 216	5. 346	. 663
1937.....	3, 118	12. 648	1. 574	2, 779	11. 270	1, 402	1, 403	5. 692	. 708

<sup>1</sup> Source: See pp. 206-215 of reference cited in footnote 1, p. 883. The table there given includes similar estimates for principal mining areas, gives bibliographical data, and explains the methods used and the limitations of the available data. Employment excludes administrative and clerical workers.

<sup>2</sup> Not available.



Irregularity of employment is indicated also by the annual number of shifts per man, which ran as low as 140 in 1933, in contrast to 293 in 1918, a war year, and 281 in 1929, another year of comparatively full employment. The decline in number of shifts per man accounts largely for the sharp reductions in output per worker from 1929 to 1932, although there were other factors, such as the extremely low level of production and the large proportion of overhead labor.

### *Factors Affecting Output*

Changes in output per man-hour are affected in such an industry as iron mining by the depletion of the richer and more readily accessible ore deposits and the opening up of new areas of production, as well as by technological changes and variations in the volume of production. The extreme fluctuations in volume of production in iron mining obviously affect the amount of labor required per unit because of such factors as the relatively high proportion of overhead labor and the difficulty of using the most efficient mass-production methods when production is at a low level. During the period as a whole, however, the upward trend of man-hour output was largely a reflection of technological changes. These changes included improvements in drilling, blasting, and haulage methods, the introduction of mechanical loading at underground mines, the improvement of loading devices at open-pit mines, the use of caterpillar traction, and the substitution of electric power for steam. Other factors that tended to increase man-hour output included the shift to open-pit mining and the tendency toward the concentration of production in larger mines and in areas with higher productivity.

### *Employment Outlook*

The series of studies to which the volume here reviewed belongs was undertaken for the purpose of inquiring into reemployment opportunities and recent changes in industrial techniques. In iron mining, the problems calling for consideration in such an inquiry were outlined as follows:

What is the outlook for employment in iron mining over the next decade? And over a longer period? The answers to these problems are governed by answers to several other questions of great importance. First, what is the extent and character of American iron-ore resources? Second, will the demand for iron ore increase, remain stationary, or decline, and at what rate will probable changes take place? Third, how much further can mechanization, with attendant declining unit labor requirements, be carried?

The conditions affecting employment in iron mining indicate that no large increase in employment in this industry can be expected, even under conditions of expanding demand for iron for the armaments program.

So long as production expanded at a faster rate than output per man, employment continued to increase. But the growth of iron-ore production reached a turning point during the second decade of this century. Employment at iron mines was at its peak in 1917. Today, the Nation's iron-ore requirements can be supplied by fewer than half the number of workers needed 20 years ago, and the trends in the factors which have made this possible are continuing. One of these factors is that the demand for iron ore has slackened because of a retardation in the growth of iron and steel production. Another important factor is the increased use of scrap. Unlike the product of almost all other industries, the product of metal mines is not entirely destroyed in consumption but can be used repeatedly. It has been estimated that about two-thirds of the iron that finds its way into iron and steel products returns after 10 to 30 years in the form of scrap and is available for re-use in a much purer form than iron ore. The total stock of iron and steel goods is being constantly augmented and represents a growing potential source of iron and steel scrap that may be used in place of iron ore. The old ferrous scrap consumed annually in the iron and steel industry during 1935-38 had an iron content equivalent to about 29 million tons of iron ore which, had it been mined at the prevailing average labor productivity, would have required the work of about 12,500 men.

The general downward tendency of employment opportunities in iron mining is complicated by the exceptional irregularity of employment and by the scarcity of other types of work in the mining areas.

Unemployment in iron-mining districts has been relatively larger than in the rest of the country. This has been true not only in depression years but also in years when mining activity was at a comparatively high level. Iron-mining counties in the important producing State of Minnesota showed higher levels of unemployment than other counties in the State, and a larger proportion of the population in these counties was forced onto the relief rolls even in fairly prosperous years. Seasonal lay-offs during the winter suspension of open-pit operations in the Lake Superior District, the largest iron-ore producing area in the country, are an additional factor complicating the problem of relief. The mining regions, moreover, offer very little in the way of alternative methods of gaining a livelihood. Practically all of the salable timber has long been cut out, and rigors of climate and the nature of the soil do not permit any extensive resort to agriculture.

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## *Social Security*

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### GROUP-ANNUITY PLAN FOR NEW YORK BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS

AT ITS 1939 convention the New York State League of Savings and Loan Associations adopted a group-retirement plan to supplement Federal old-age insurance.<sup>1</sup>

Under the plan any employee of a participating association, who is under 64 years of age and has had at least 1 year's continuous service, may join, provided he earns at least \$2,000 per year or has reached 40 years of age. Twenty-one salary groups are created, each with its own rate of contribution and benefits. The employee's contributions range from \$2 per month for employees in class 1 (earning under \$2,000 per year and having attained age 40) to \$30.50 per month for those in class 21 (earning \$9,800 or over per year). This contribution is to be deducted by the check-off system. The remainder of the cost of the plan is to be met by the association by which the worker is employed.

The monthly service benefits, at 65, range from \$1 for class 1 to \$10.50 for class 21. The total annuity receivable by an employee is based upon the number of completed years of contributions in each salary class. An example is given of an employee retiring at 65 after contributing in class 4 for 10 years, class 5 for 5 years, and class 6 for 10 years. His monthly annuity would be equal to \$2 (the service rate for class 4) multiplied by 10, plus \$2.50 multiplied by 5, plus \$3 multiplied by 10—a total of \$62.50. These benefits would be in addition to those received under the Federal Social Security Act.

An additional feature is the provision whereby a participating association may elect to contribute toward the purchase of supplementary annuities for older employees who will not have had sufficient time to accumulate an adequate annuity before retirement. Such benefits are open for employees who are over 41 years old when the plan goes into effect, who join as soon as eligible, and who continue to contribute until retirement. The annuity under this provision will be equal to 1 per cent of the annual salary (as of the time the plan becomes effective) for each full year of continuous service after reaching 40 years of age.

The plan as adopted by the convention will not go into effect until at least 20 State-chartered associations (with at least 150 employees)

<sup>1</sup> Data are from Federal Home Loan Bank Board, Federal Home Loan Bank Review (Washington), August 1940.



have applied and received the approval of the State Superintendent of Banks. The State league will then take out a group-annuities contract with a designated insurance company. Similarly, the plan can be adopted by Federal associations when associations with 150 to 200 employees have signed up for participation.



### SUPPLEMENTARY-PENSION PLAN OF UNITED STATES STEEL CORPORATION

A PLAN to supplement the coverage of the Federal acts, by providing annuities on employees' earnings over \$3,000 (or \$3,600 for railroad employees) was announced in May 1940, by the United States Steel Corporation. As described in the May 20, 1940, issue of *Steel* (Cleveland), the new plan does not affect the earlier pension scheme of the company. That plan, started in 1911, was revised in December 1939 to continue pension credits for service prior to 1940 and to provide annuities to employees retiring after 1939 until they qualify for Federal or State old-age benefits.

Under the supplementary plan employees will contribute 3 percent of their earnings over \$3,000 or \$3,600 per year. The companies will provide whatever amounts (expected to be "substantially in excess" of the employees' contributions) are necessary to cover the cost of the plan.

Annual benefits are to be 1 percent of the aggregate eligible compensation (i. e., amount in excess of earnings taxable under the Federal laws) received by the employee during his participation in the plan. Employees whose earnings are under \$3,000 or \$3,600 are to receive benefits under the original pension plan, minus the amount received under the Federal laws.

As in the Federal acts, the retirement age is set at 65. The company's plan provides for retirement because of permanent total disability, if the employee has had at least 25 years' service, in which case the company's plan will provide benefits until the employee becomes eligible for Federal pension.

It is estimated that about 11,000 employees will be covered by the supplementary plan.



### WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION IN GREAT BRITAIN<sup>1</sup>

A LIBERALIZATION of the terms of the workmen's compensation legislation in Great Britain has been sought for some time, and a compromise measure was recently adopted. This law, known as the Workmen's Compensation (Supplementary Allowances, Number 2)

<sup>1</sup> Data are from Great Britain: Parliament, Workmen's Compensation (Supplementary Allowances) (No. 2) Bill; Home Office, Workmen's Compensation, Statistics of Compensation and Proceedings, 1938 (Cmd. 6203); Parliament, House of Commons, Debates, July 18 and 25, 1940; London, 1940. The Economist, London, August 3, 1940.

Act of 1940, as its title shows, was the second compensation law proposed this year. Under the terms of the enactment, which received royal assent in August 1940, provision is made for a general increase in the rates of compensation, and for supplementary allowances for children.

As the need for a change in the existing workmen's compensation provisions had been recognized by the British Government for some time, a special body—the Royal Commission on Workmen's Compensation—was created to study the problems involved. This Commission has now suspended meetings indefinitely, as, owing to the war, it did not seem a logical time to introduce far-reaching changes such as would doubtless have been proposed.

The first workmen's compensation bill introduced by the Government for consideration in 1940 was avowedly an interim measure. Under its terms, family allowances would have been authorized for married men. The Labor Party, which was the opposition party at that time, opposed enactment of the legislation, on the ground that the benefits were limited to wives and children of injured or deceased married men, and that no provision was made for extra compensation to be paid to single men and single women. Thus, the bill, it was stated, failed to recognize the admitted necessity for an immediate general increase in the rates of compensation. After the Labor Party joined the Government, when the Cabinet change was made in May, the bill was withdrawn and a new one introduced.

Although the law which finally passed is not regarded as all that is desirable, labor accepted it as meeting the major objective—namely, that there should be an increase in rates of compensation for all workers, whether married or single, and not only for those having families.

### *Legislation of 1940*

Provision was made in the new workmen's compensation law for a flat increase in compensation payments to every worker, male and female, of 5s. weekly in cases of total disability. Children's allowances, also classed as supplementary allowances, were fixed at 4s. for each of the first two children, and 3s. each for all other children under 15 years of age. This means that supplementary allowances under the workmen's compensation law are brought into line with the new scales established under the unemployment-insurance system and the scheme for temporary-disability payments made for civilian war injuries. However, in cases of partial disability, the children's allowances are scaled down in proportion to the reduction in ordinary compensation payments.

The supplementary allowances authorized are payable whether the compensable accident occurred before or after August 19, 1940, which was the effective date of the statute.

The sum of all payments, including the supplements for children, may not exceed seven-eighths of the average weekly earnings of the workman before the accident. In cases of partial incapacity such amounts as the injured worker is able to earn in some suitable employment or business after the accident are deductible from the compensation payment on a basis fixed under the terms of the law.

Supplementary allowances are deemed a part of weekly payments, except in calculating death benefits and in cases covered by special provision of the National Health Insurance Act of 1936 limiting the benefit payable. Any worker receiving two or more concurrent weekly payments is to receive the supplementary allowances for children to which he is entitled in respect to each such weekly payment, subject to the foregoing provisions as to the maximum payment permissible.

A child, for the purposes of the law, means any legitimate or illegitimate child born to the father not later than 9 months after the compensable accident; any stepchild who is a legitimate child whose mother was married to the father before the accident; and any child legally adopted before the accident.

Workers suffering from silicosis and certain other industrial diseases also share in the increases in benefits. The Secretary of State is authorized to introduce the necessary regulations to coordinate the provisions of earlier legislation on the compensation of these diseases with those of the present law.

### *Statistics for 1938*

The latest available workmen's compensation statistics, covering 1938, show that £6,765,067 was paid on claims of 459,223 workers in 7 industries. Of the accidents, 2,498 were fatal, and 456,725 nonfatal. The industries for which information is compiled regularly by the Home Office are shipping, factories, docks, mines, quarries, construction work, and railroads. These industries employed an average of 7,860,500 workers during the year, and accounted for 82.6 percent of the cases compensated and 82.0 percent of the compensation paid. Mutual companies acting as insurers met 49.5 percent of the claims, and insurance companies 23.1 percent; the remaining 27.4 percent of the total was paid by employers, for liabilities not covered by insurance, either directly or through agents.

The following table gives the number of persons employed, and the ratio of cases compensated to total employed by industry, for the years 1934, 1937, and 1938. Expenditures shown represent actual amounts paid to workers and their dependents, and not the total charge (including administrative expenses) on the industries for workmen's compensation. It is estimated that in these seven industries the total expenditure in 1938 amounted to about £8,500,000. For

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all industries, the total charge must have been somewhat under £13,500,000 in that year.

*Number of Persons Employed in 7 British Industries, and Percent of Compensation Cases*

Industry	Total number of persons employed			Compensation cases as percent of total persons employed		
	1934	1937	1938	1934	1937	1938
All Industries.....	7,050,177	7,959,063	7,860,501	5.73	6.14	5.84
Shipping.....	153,200	153,377	156,706	5.16	5.93	5.71
Factories.....	5,342,697	6,133,802	5,985,493	3.34	3.97	3.72
Docks.....	99,161	106,428	111,655	10.56	11.27	9.66
Mines.....	784,643	792,744	796,382	22.30	23.23	22.05
Quarries.....	65,597	74,989	78,573	9.11	10.45	10.29
Construction work.....	166,476	244,497	275,743	5.05	4.50	4.77
Railways.....	438,403	453,226	455,949	3.95	4.65	4.45

Of 439,890 cases of disablement arising from accidents in 1938, 379,187 were new cases and 60,703 were continued from previous years. Cases outstanding at the end of the year totaled 56,941, including 26,012 which had lasted one year or more and 8,170 which had lasted 10 years or more. Of the 382,949 cases terminated, 4.3 percent were settled by the payment of a lump sum after weekly payments, 0.5 percent by payment of a lump sum without previous weekly payments, and the remaining 95.2 percent without lump-sum payment.

Disease-disablement cases numbered 16,835, of which 11,081 were new and 5,754 were continued cases. At the end of the year 1938, there were 5,149 cases outstanding, and 11,686 had terminated. Of the cases outstanding, 3,241 had lasted one year or over, and 579 had lasted 10 years or more. Among the cases terminated, 13.7 percent were settled with a lump-sum payment after weekly payments, 0.3 percent by such payment without previous weekly compensation, and 86.0 percent without lump-sum payments.

For every 100 cases of disablement arising from accident which were terminated during the year (including cases settled by lump-sum payment), 3.6 percent lasted 26 weeks or over, as compared with 17.2 percent for cases of disease.

Mining continued to be the industry accounting for the greater part of the disablement cases. Dermatitis increased from 270 cases in 1919 to 3,489 in 1938. Skin ailments occur in a variety of industries but chiefly among bakers and confectioners, dye workers, French polishers, and engineers.

Compensation for silicosis and asbestosis continued during 1938, under legislation enacted in 1925 and 1930. Up to the end of 1938, compensation had been paid for 7,504 cases of silicosis, since this disease became compensable. Payments were made in 2,739 cases in 1938. In 8 years, compensation was made for 257 cases of asbestosis, of which 4 fatal cases and 54 disablement cases occurred in 1938.

## Youth in Industry

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### FEDERAL ORDER FIXING AGE MINIMUM FOR WORK IN COAL MINES

AN ORDER establishing, under the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of June 25, 1938, an 18-year minimum age for most occupations in coal mines, became effective September 1, 1940.<sup>1</sup> This new regulation is applicable to all coal mines the products of which are shipped in interstate and foreign commerce.

According to this order "all occupations in or about any coal mine, except the occupation of slate or other refuse picking at a picking table or picking chute in a tippie or breaker and occupations requiring the performance of duties solely in offices or in repair or maintenance shops located in the surface part of any coal-mining plant, are particularly hazardous for the employment of minors between 16 and 18 years of age."

The following definitions of terms are included, for the purpose of this order:

- (1) The term "coal" shall mean any rank of coal, including lignite, bituminous, and anthracite coals.
- (2) The term "all occupations in or about any coal mine" shall mean all types of work performed in any underground working, open-pit, or surface part of any coal-mining plant, that contribute to the extraction, grading, cleaning, or other handling of coal.

In case of employers not included under the Fair Labor Standards Act, the minimum-age standard of the State child-labor law takes precedence, and even for employers who are included under the act, "the State standard prevails whenever it is higher than the Federal standard."

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<sup>1</sup> U. S. Children's Bureau. Notice of Hearing on Proposed Finding and Order Relating to the Employment of Minors . . . in Coal-Mine Occupations under the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, June 7, 1940; press release June 11, 1940; Child Labor Regulations, Order No. 3, Occupations Particularly Hazardous for the Employment of Minors Between 16 and 18 Years of Age or Detrimental to their Health or Well-Being, August 1, 1940

## NYA STUDENT-WORK PROGRAM, 1940-41

ON JULY 17, 1940, the National Youth Administrator reported the allocation of \$26,240,281 among 48 States, New York City, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, for the NYA student-work program for the school year 1940-41. Through this allocation, part-time work will be provided for needy students between 16 and 24 years of age, for the continuation of their education. The allotment to provide employment for secondary-school students is \$12,509,161, and for college students \$13,731,120.<sup>1</sup>

An allocation of \$100,000 was also announced for the NYA special program for the assistance of Negro college and graduate students. This allotment is used to provide NYA jobs for Negro students who reside in States in which there are no graduate institutions for Negro students, in order that they may attend graduate institutions in other States.

It is expected that over half a million different students will have employment on the student-work program of the NYA in the course of the scholastic year 1940-41. Over 27,000 non-profit-making, tax-exempt secondary schools,<sup>2</sup> and more than 1,680 colleges and universities, will have a part in the program.

The earnings of secondary-school students will be between \$3 and \$6 per month; of college undergraduates, between \$10 and \$20 per month; and of graduate students, between \$10 and \$30 per month. Individual earnings will vary in accordance with the number of hours the person is employed and the hourly rates in the locality.

The students to be accorded NYA employment will be selected by school and college authorities "on the basis of proven need and demonstrated scholastic ability." Officials of the educational institutions included in the program will also supervise the students' work.

The following table shows allocations for NYA student work, by States, for the current school year.

<sup>1</sup> National Youth Administration. Press release (PR 101) July 17, 1940, Washington.

<sup>2</sup> An NYA press release of September 3, 1940, reports that over 28,000 such schools will have part in the program.



## NYA Student-Work Allocations, 1940-41

State or Territory	Allotment	State or Territory	Allotment
All States.....	\$26, 240, 281	Nevada.....	18, 690
Alabama.....	514, 391	New Hampshire.....	109, 143
Arizona.....	108, 093	New Jersey.....	569, 165
Arkansas.....	317, 434	New Mexico.....	92, 258
California.....	1, 652, 588	New York City.....	1, 482, 768
Colorado.....	290, 419	New York State.....	1, 035, 362
Connecticut.....	259, 559	North Carolina.....	715, 497
Delaware.....	30, 688	North Dakota.....	201, 272
District of Columbia.....	147, 640	Ohio.....	1, 347, 719
Florida.....	295, 946	Oklahoma.....	637, 097
Georgia.....	596, 722	Oregon.....	254, 727
Idaho.....	127, 882	Pennsylvania.....	1, 820, 932
Illinois.....	1, 503, 059	Rhode Island.....	131, 543
Indiana.....	686, 741	South Carolina.....	401, 915
Iowa.....	504, 403	South Dakota.....	225, 665
Kansas.....	485, 993	Tennessee.....	545, 926
Kentucky.....	457, 503	Texas.....	1, 380, 883
Louisiana.....	496, 235	Utah.....	201, 361
Maine.....	136, 545	Vermont.....	75, 936
Maryland.....	283, 454	Virginia.....	553, 458
Massachusetts.....	763, 608	Washington.....	407, 155
Michigan.....	1, 013, 500	West Virginia.....	339, 890
Minnesota.....	611, 553	Wisconsin.....	694, 985
Mississippi.....	360, 095	Wyoming.....	47, 297
Missouri.....	736, 029	Alaska.....	5, 295
Montana.....	141, 644	Hawaii.....	51, 325
Nebraska.....	311, 908	Puerto Rico.....	59, 415

## ECONOMIC PROBLEMS OF YOUTH AS THEY AFFECT OTHER GROUPS

IN ORDER to get an adequate picture of employers' needs and employment policies in California, a questionnaire was sent in June 1939 to a representative group of 8,000 employers in that State. The approximately 100,000 employees of the 1,800 reporting establishments were in practically all industries and occupations.

The report of this survey <sup>1</sup> points out that the experience of older workers, the length of time they have been with their employers, as well as their highly developed skills, place youth at a disadvantage. The young people have little training, skill, or experience, and in numerous cases are of small value to employers except in unskilled jobs. As private training is expensive and public training is restricted, and as no experience can be gained without employment, the young people appear to be confronted by a vicious circle. However, the report shows that they do compete for jobs by obtaining additional training, by working for little or nothing to get experience, or by working for wages low enough to offset their inexperience and lack of skill.

<sup>1</sup> California. Department of Education and State Relief Administration. Youth—California's Future, by Claudia Williams, Drayton S. Bryant, and Aaron E. Jones. A summary of the findings of the California youth survey. Sacramento, March 1940, pp. 19-25.

### *The Viewpoint of the Adult Wage Earner*

The situation has two aspects—that of the unemployed youth trying to get started, and that of the adult wage earner whose employment and wage standards are threatened by young persons working for lower rates.

The jobs and wage standards of adult wage earners have been increasingly threatened by the apparent oversupply of labor, of which a prominent part is composed of youths. Especially have the needs of youth for jobs endangered the economic standards and conditions which labor unions, as the most conscious spokesman of the needs of all wage earners, have attempted to maintain. In the case of skilled workers, particularly, there has been considerable evidence of replacement by younger workers by means of mechanization and simplification of jobs in industry.

Two hundred local unions replied to questionnaires sent to approximately all bona fide California labor unions. In the reporting unions only 76 percent of the reported membership were employed 30 hours or over per week in April 1939, excluding cannery union members, almost all of whom were then unemployed.

Many young persons feel that unions keep them from getting work. However, these organizations have numerous jobless members whose needs must be considered before those of nonmembers. About 50 percent of the reporting unions stated that employment was a requisite for admission to membership, and apprentices constituted only 4.4 percent of the total number of members.

However, it is seen that the total number of union members in California, estimated to be between 400,000 and 500,000, constitute at most a sixth of all persons working or looking for work. The number of members in unions having closed-shop agreements or some control over employment is much less than this. The working conditions, therefore, enforced by unions to protect their members, cannot be considered a major obstacle to employment of young people when compared to the general restriction of employment, and to the widespread unemployment of persons of all ages and occupations from every industry. \* \* \* Increased opportunity for adequate employment is obviously the only permanent solution of the problem. Many of the present employment restrictions of labor unions would then be no longer necessary.

### *Problems Involved in Vocational Training*

Union wage scales for apprentices, which ordinarily begin at 20 to 25 percent of the wage of journeymen, were frequently said by employers to be too high to permit them to employ youth. The report points out that shortage of labor is obviously related to the wages paid, and that therefore "the effect of public training programs upon all wage earners must be considered, for a large surplus of skilled labor would tend to lower wage levels."

During the depression years far less than the usual number of young persons were trained or even found employment. At present the majority of jobs available for youth call for little or no skill. The

survey disclosed little evidence of a shortage of skilled labor, but noted that a sudden fluctuation in demand for skilled workers would find little surplus from which to draw. To provide a constant supply of skilled labor without creating a large pool of trained and experienced jobless workers is recognized as a major problem.

Training, of course, aids some youth to obtain better jobs but in many cases the employment is obtained by replacing older workers at lower wages. An analysis of trade-school activities shows that the graduates of these schools get jobs sooner and at better pay than the majority of young persons. However, these wages were frequently not so high as the prevailing union scale for the same work in the vicinity.

Considerable evidence points to the conclusion that young people can compete in the labor market mainly by being willing to work for lower pay. As to this, the report points out that any widespread wage reduction assisted by a substantial surplus of skilled workers "does not appear to serve the best interest of wage earners as a group."

The findings of the survey indicated that both public and private training schools are graduating many young persons with little reference to industrial requirements. Particularly disadvantageous to youth are the procedures many private training schools employ in enrolling students through high-pressure methods and paying little attention to youth's needs or actual industrial demand. It is also indicated that some California public trade schools have, on occasion, cooperated with employers to furnish low-paid labor to the disadvantage of older employees.

The demand for increased vocational training in effect is the shifting of the expense formerly borne by industry to the public education system and onto the youth and his family. Practice under artificial conditions cannot be considered equal to training in actual employment. The thorough training of youths under apprenticeship agreement for a steady expansion is a sounder development of a skilled labor supply than the flooding of the labor market with a huge surplus of half-trained youths looking toward a sudden expansion as might, for example, be occasioned by war.

On the other hand, it is of benefit to young people to have their basic skills developed and made available for different uses. Of outstanding importance is the maintenance of the employability, morale, and skill of the future labor force of the United States. Even though there is no immediate prospect for employment, these benefits are of value in offsetting the demoralizing influence of widespread unemployment among youths and the insecurity which confronts most of them.

According to the report, "there is only one way in which programs of training for youth can be developed which will be fair to all groups concerned. That way is cooperation of all interested parties to plan training programs upon the basis of accurate and extensive occupa-



tional information concerning the real and not asserted employment possibilities in industry and the ability of organized labor to supply such needs."

Training programs upon which employers, labor and educational bodies agree can be carried out to the advantage of all groups. "These programs should be closely related to the work of the California Apprenticeship Council, established under the Shelley-Maloney Apprentice Labor Standards Act of 1939." In this way youth can be trained on the job and have guaranteed working hours and pay, satisfactory types of workers can be supplied in required numbers, and apprentices will not become the means of lowering wage levels.

However, skilled workers who require several years of apprenticeship training constitute only a small proportion of the total wage earners. The great majority of jobs available to youth at present and probably in the future call for unskilled or semiskilled persons. Young people hired for jobs which they can learn in a few days or weeks are designated "learners." Under minimum-wage legislation "learners" may be paid lower wages for a specified length of time. However, abuses have sometimes crept in, and many young persons are fired just before the expiration of their service as "learners."

The fundamental fact for youth in quest of jobs, according to this California survey, is the amount of employment industry can supply. The type of jobs, the wages, and the opportunities offered through employment, the report states, are almost equally basic considerations. Progress in the solution of the training problems of youth demands a perennial correlation of all programs with action upon the total mass of unemployment.



## CAREER CONFERENCES FOR YOUTH IN NEW YORK CITY

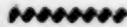
CAREER conferences, inaugurated by the New York City Vocational Service for juniors in 1936, have been held in each subsequent year with the cooperation of the New York City Board of Education and the New York State Employment Service.<sup>1</sup> Placement and guidance counselors from the high schools of New York, and placement interviewers from the New York State Employment Service, Junior Division, have aided in working out programs to furnish useful information on occupational fields for youth about to graduate from general high-school courses. Each year men and women who are experts in their special fields of work have talked to about 2,000 young people, at meetings held at Radio City in 1937 and at the Engineering Societies Building in 1938 and 1939.

<sup>1</sup> Vocational Service for Juniors. Three-Year Report 1937-8-9. New York, 1940.

Among those who have served as chairmen at these sessions are the president of the Associated Dry Goods Corporation of New York; the president emeritus of Yale University and educational counselor for the National Broadcasting Co.; and the Lieutenant Governor of New York.

Included in the topics which have been discussed at the general sessions are the engineering and mechanical field, health and medicine, food and clothing industries, and the department store, book publishing, photography, and out-of-door occupations. Round-table talks have furnished opportunities for taking up problems of special interest to youth. At the 1939 conference, the chairmen of the round-table talks were interviewers of the Junior Division of the State Employment Service and counselors of the Consultation Service of the Vocational Service for Juniors.

Each year, after the conference, young people in need of individual assistance with their vocational plans seek advice from the Consultation Service.



## JOB PROSPECTS FOR OHIO YOUTH

IN ORDER to discover the best job opportunities for the Ohio high-school and college graduates of 1940, as well as for those students who in 2 to 5 years hence will have had special training, the Employment Service Division of the Ohio Unemployment Compensation Bureau recently made an occupational survey.<sup>1</sup> This was the first canvass of its kind in the State.

Field agents of the Employment Service Division, operating from the 47 employment-security centers carried on the inquiry during their usual visits to employers in search of available employment opportunities. The findings of the study are regarded as so important that it is thought probable that similar surveys will be made every year by the bureau.

Based on the opinions of over 3,000 employers, civic and labor leaders in Ohio, it appears that (1) "overall jobs" afford better openings for the 1940 high-school graduate than do white-collar positions, (2) job prospects for 1940 college graduates seem most encouraging along professional engineering lines, and (3) special training in semiskilled and skilled technical and professional occupations is desirable for youth who will be graduated from high school or college from 1942 to 1945.

The Bureau found an "index of estimated demand" by weighing the reported rates of probable demand for each indicated occupation, based on opinions as to steady demand, frequent demand, and scattered requests for workers. Although analysis of the survey's results indicates that many of the occupations estimated

<sup>1</sup> Ohio. Bureau of Unemployment Compensation. *Compensator*, Columbus, June-July 1940.

to be in steady demand are "white-collar" jobs, the aggregate of "work-shirt" jobs is probably greater due to more widespread opportunities for employment through the many different types of factory and production work.

Skilled trades and production operations offer the widest single field of employment endeavor for young men who graduated from high school in 1940.

Salesmanship offers opportunities for young men and high-school graduates who like that type of work. A demand for gasoline-station attendants and driver-salesmen was forecast.

A demand for male high-school graduates of this year in clerical work and in hotel and institutional service was forecast, and the outlook for employment as farm hands was estimated as highly favorable.

In the estimates of job opportunities for the girl high-school graduates in 1940, saleswork, office work, and the service trades take precedence. A probable high demand is predicted for maids who can cook, and for neat, clean, and efficient waitresses. Factory employment in assembling, finishing, packing, and light machine work, present wider opportunities to high-school graduates than is commonly recognized.

Various other nonprofessional job opportunities were listed for both boy and girl high-school graduates, in the order of the probable demand.

### *Technical Jobs for College Men and Women*

The occupations in which a probable demand is estimated for college graduates in 1940, and for high-school and college graduates from 1942 to 1945, are given below:

#### *1940 College Graduates*

*Men.*—Accountants, mechanical draftsmen, mechanical engineers, pharmacists, electrical engineers, chemists, life insurance salesmen, stenographers.

*Women.*—Private secretaries, general stenographers, nurses, dietitians, grade teachers, social workers, high-school teachers, general office clerks, inside salespersons, and general-ledger bookkeepers.

#### *1942-45 High School or College Graduates*

*Men.*—Machinists, die makers, bricklayers, tool makers, salespersons, mechanical engineers, mechanical draftsmen, accountants, machine and tool designers, electrical engineers.

*Women.*—General stenographers, trained nurses, hairdressers, private secretaries, general salespersons, bookkeepers, social workers, maids who can do cooking, dietitians, and grade teachers.

### *Other Findings*

The employers interviewed during the survey emphasized that young graduates "must be willing to roll up their sleeves, get their hands dirty, and begin in the bottom row of jobs, earning promotion through performance and application of their best efforts."



The need for vocational guidance and training is widely recognized, especially training for employment in expanding industries—for example, synthetic textiles, plastics and glass, and long-distance truck hauling.

Emphasis was also given to the need for more learners in the metal and building trades.

In the judgment of many employers, too many young persons are training for white-collar jobs, and more boys and girls should prepare for skilled or production occupations and trades, which afford better employment opportunities and usually higher rates of pay.

The findings of the survey have been made available to parents, educators, labor and civic leaders, and others interested in the vocational guidance and training of young people.

## *Women in Industry*

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### EARNINGS IN THE WOMEN'S AND CHILDREN'S APPAREL INDUSTRY, 1939

SLIGHTLY over 15 percent of all experienced workers in the women's and children's apparel industry were earning less than 30 cents an hour in the spring of 1939. The average hourly earnings in the different branches of the industry varied greatly, ranging from 38.5 cents for employees of firms making dresses to sell by the dozen to 78.0 cents for workers on unit-priced dresses. Earnings in the industry were ascertained in a survey made by the United States Women's Bureau at the request of the Wage and Hour Division,<sup>1</sup> the survey including the following branches: Women's dresses and service uniforms of all types, women's blouses, children's and infants' outerwear, corsets and allied garments, and women's and children's underwear and nightwear. The survey was made in the spring of 1939, covering a pay-roll period between February 1 and May 6. Data were obtained for 2,287 firms in 22 States and employing 141,607 workers, which represented 48.7 percent of all firms and 65.4 percent of all employees in the industry.

In the women's dress branch of the industry the old designations, such as street dresses or silk dresses, and house dresses or cotton wash dresses, were found to be no longer applicable. Some dresses are now styled so as to be worn on the street as well as for house use, and mixed fabrics, rather than silk or cotton alone, are in general use. In the popular-price field, the competition is between firms wholesaling dresses by the dozen and those wholesaling dresses by the unit. The first group of firms tends to subdivide manufacturing processes among many workers and the other group to employ skilled operators to sew the entire dress. Service uniforms, aprons, and specially named washable sports garments were included under the classification "dresses wholesaling by the dozen."

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<sup>1</sup> U. S. Department of Labor. Women's Bureau. Bulletin No. 175: Earnings in the Women's and Children's Apparel Industry in the Spring of 1939. Washington, 1940.

New York City is the center of the women's and children's apparel industry, over 40 percent of the workers in the industry being employed in the city and State of New York. New Jersey and Pennsylvania each employ about one-eighth of the workers, and the proportions in other States range from less than 1 to 7 percent. Women comprise the greater part of the working force in the industry, 85 percent of the experienced employees whose occupations were reported being women.

The largest occupational group was machine operators, comprising 61 percent of all the workers. Ninety-five percent of this group were women. The hand finishers, inspectors, and packers were the next largest group, constituting 16 percent of the total. About 99 percent of this group were women.

As a result of the information obtained in this survey, the Wage and Hour Division set a minimum of 35 cents an hour in each of the branches of the industry surveyed for employees engaged in interstate commerce and the production of goods for interstate commerce, effective July 15, 1940.

### *Hourly Earnings in Different Branches of the Industry*

In the pay-roll period covered by the survey, approximately 11 percent of all experienced workers in the industry were earning less than 27.5 cents an hour and about 5 percent were in the group earning 27.5 but under 30 cents. In the different branches of the industry the proportion earning less than 30 cents varied. Only 4 percent of the workers on unit-priced dresses earned so little, as compared with 28 percent of the workers on dozen-priced dresses and uniforms. In the branches making children's and infants' outerwear and women's and children's underwear and nightwear, the percentage was over 21; in the corsets and allied garments branch it was nearly 10, and in the blouses branch it was about 7.

A percentage distribution of the workers in the different branches of the industry by hourly earnings is given in table 1. The relative position of these branches in the wage scale is evident from the average hourly earnings therein, which were as follows: All employees, 55.5 cents; unit-priced dresses, 78.2 cents; blouses, 53.1 cents; corsets and allied garments, 46.3 cents; underwear and nightwear, 41.5 cents; children's and infants' outerwear, 41.3 cents; and dozen-priced dresses, 38.5 cents.

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TABLE 1.—Percentage Distribution of Experienced Employees in Women's and Children's Apparel Industry, by Hourly Earnings and Branch of Industry, Spring of 1939

Hourly earnings	All employees	Dozen-priced dresses	Unit-priced dresses	Blouses	Children's and infants' outerwear	Corsets and allied garments	Underwear and night-wear
Under 25.0 cents.....	0.7	0.9	0.3	0.9	0.7	0.2	1.4
25.0 and under 27.5 cents.....	9.9	19.5	2.8	3.9	14.3	5.5	13.2
27.5 and under 30.0 cents.....	4.5	8.0	1.1	2.8	6.5	3.9	6.6
30.0 and under 32.5 cents.....	5.4	8.8	1.6	3.4	8.5	5.5	8.0
32.5 and under 35.0 cents.....	6.9	12.6	2.0	4.4	11.6	4.7	8.9
35.0 and under 37.5 cents.....	7.2	10.9	1.9	6.1	10.5	9.3	11.3
37.5 and under 40.0 cents.....	5.2	7.6	1.7	4.8	7.4	7.9	7.5
40.0 and under 42.5 cents.....	5.8	6.3	3.1	7.2	7.5	9.2	8.0
42.5 and under 45.0 cents.....	4.6	4.3	2.7	5.9	5.6	11.0	5.4
45.0 and under 47.5 cents.....	5.7	4.2	6.2	7.0	5.5	7.5	5.3
47.5 and under 50.0 cents.....	3.5	2.4	3.2	4.5	4.0	5.2	4.0
50.0 and under 52.5 cents.....	3.6	2.9	3.3	8.8	8.6	5.1	3.4
52.5 and under 55.0 cents.....	2.5	1.6	2.3	4.4	2.3	4.0	2.9
55.0 and under 57.5 cents.....	2.7	1.6	3.3	5.5	1.9	3.7	2.3
57.5 and under 60.0 cents.....	1.7	1.1	1.9	3.2	1.3	2.7	1.9
60.0 and under 62.5 cents.....	1.9	.9	2.6	3.0	1.2	2.2	1.6
62.5 and under 65.0 cents.....	2.5	1.1	4.3	3.2	.9	2.1	1.3
65.0 and under 67.5 cents.....	1.7	.5	2.8	3.7	.8	1.6	.9
67.5 and under 70.0 cents.....	1.5	.6	2.4	2.7	.6	1.3	1.0
70.0 and under 72.5 cents.....	1.5	.4	2.7	2.2	.5	1.0	.7
72.5 and under 75.0 cents.....	1.0	.3	2.0	1.4	.2	.6	.5
75.0 and under 77.5 cents.....	1.9	.4	4.0	1.7	.4	.9	.5
77.5 and under 80.0 cents.....	.9	.3	1.8	1.0	.2	.6	.4
80.0 and under 82.5 cents.....	1.1	.2	2.4	.9	.3	.5	.4
82.5 and under 85.0 cents.....	.8	.2	1.7	.4	.1	.4	.2
85.0 and under 87.5 cents.....	1.2	.2	2.7	.8	.2	.5	.2
87.5 and under 90.0 cents.....	.8	.2	1.7	.5	.2	.4	.2
90.0 and under 92.5 cents.....	1.3	.2	3.0	.6	.4	.4	.2
92.5 and under 95.0 cents.....	.8	.2	1.8	.3	.1	.3	.1
95.0 and under 97.5 cents.....	.6	.1	1.5	.3	.2	.1	( <sup>1</sup> )
97.5 and under 100.0 cents.....	.6	.1	1.4	.2	.2	.1	.2
100.0 cents and over.....	10.0	1.2	23.6	4.4	2.2	1.6	1.5
Number of firms.....	2, 287	399	1, 104	156	238	100	290
Number of employees.....	136, 337	31, 047	51, 055	6, 765	16, 425	9, 628	21, 417
Average earnings <sup>2</sup> (cents).....	55.5	38.5	78.2	53.1	41.3	46.3	41.5

<sup>1</sup> Less than 0.05 percent.<sup>2</sup> The mean—the simple arithmetic average.

### Hourly Earnings, by Occupation

In all branches of the industry, machine operators, and hand finishers, inspectors, and packers, who were predominantly women, constituted the largest occupational groups. The most important occupation for men in all branches of the industry was cutting, and in the unit-priced-dress branch, pressing as well. The latter occupations had the highest average hourly earnings, outside of the supervisory and machinists group. Shipping employees and maintenance workers were the only other groups composed largely of men, except that in the plant clerical force in the unit-priced-dress branch men predominated. The average hourly earnings in the different branches of the industry are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Average Hourly Earnings in Various Branches of Women's and Children's Apparel Industry, by Occupation

Occupation	Dozen-priced dresses	Unit-priced dresses	Blouses	Children's and infants' outer-wear	Corsets and allied garments	Underwear and night-wear
	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents
All factory employees.....	38.5	78.2	53.1	41.3	46.3	41.5
Machine operators.....	36.3	77.7	53.3	39.0	44.5	41.0
Hand finishers, inspectors, and packers...	33.7	55.8	40.7	34.8	38.8	35.7
Cutters.....	59.4	115.4	100.6	72.3	69.6	62.3
Pressers.....	38.2	126.3	54.5	43.4	48.6	40.4
General indirect labor <sup>1</sup> .....	33.3	41.7	37.0	31.9	39.3	31.7
Shipping.....	42.8	42.8	42.6	42.3	49.2	40.7
Maintenance.....	38.9	39.2	41.9	38.3	53.9	39.5
Supervisory and machinists <sup>2</sup> .....	66.8	96.4	88.6	75.2	69.7	66.3
Plant clerical.....	38.7	52.7	-----	37.3	46.4	41.8

<sup>1</sup> Unskilled workers who do odd jobs around the plant.

<sup>2</sup> Combined because of small numbers of machinists.

### Hourly Earnings in Union and Nonunion Shops

*Women's dozen-priced dresses.*—More than one-third of the firms manufacturing dozen-priced dresses were unionized. Union employees in 16 areas earned an average ranging from 29.3 cents an hour in Tennessee to between 45 and 48 cents in California, Philadelphia, and New York City and to 66.1 cents in Ohio. Nonunion workers in 23 areas had average hourly earnings varying from less than 30 cents in Tennessee, Virginia, and Arkansas and Kentucky to 45.8 cents in New York City and to 54.7 cents in Missouri outside of St. Louis. A comparison of earnings of workers in organized and unorganized firms in the same area showed a difference in favor of union workers of 30.4 cents in Ohio, and from 1.1 to 8.3 cents in 11 other areas. Nonunion workers, however, had averages 20.2 cents more than union workers in Missouri outside of St. Louis, and 1.6 cents more in Texas.

*Women's unit-priced dresses.*—Unionization of employees was more extensive in the unit-priced-dress branch than in most of the other branches of the industry, about nine-tenths of the employees being in union shops. The average hourly earnings of union workers ranged from slightly over 44 cents in Pennsylvania outside of Philadelphia and in Georgia, to 84.9 cents in Ohio and 90.4 cents in New York City. Nonunion workers' average earnings ranged from 29.8 cents in Pennsylvania outside of Philadelphia to 65.2 cents in Boston and 73 cents in Ohio. Comparison of average hourly earnings of union and nonunion workers in the same area showed that union workers earned 3.7 cents more in Massachusetts outside of Boston, 6.1 cents more in Boston, 11.9 cents more in Ohio, and from 28.3 to 33.5 cents more in New Jersey, New York City, up-State New York, and Illinois. In

Connecticut and Philadelphia they averaged over 20 cents an hour more.

*Women's blouses.*—About nine-tenths of the employees in this branch of the industry worked in union plants. Average hourly earnings of union workers ranged from 41.3 cents in Chicago to 61 cents in New York City, as compared to a range for nonunion workers from 37.3 cents in Pennsylvania to 49.3 cents in Massachusetts. In only California and Pennsylvania could a comparison of union and nonunion plants in the same area be made. In California the average hourly earnings of union workers were 12.4 cents higher than the average of nonunion workers; in Pennsylvania there was a difference of 16.6 cents in favor of union employees.

*Children's and infants' outerwear.*—Over half of the firms scheduled in this branch, employing 59 percent of all the employees, worked under union agreements. In these union plants average hourly earnings varied from 31 cents in Texas to 54.6 cents in New York City. In areas where union and nonunion hourly earnings could be compared, the difference in favor of union workers varied from 1.4 cents in Philadelphia to 8.5 cents in New York City; in Chicago, Pennsylvania outside of Philadelphia, and up-State New York, it was more than 5 cents. In Connecticut, however, nonunion workers averaged 3.5 cents an hour more than union workers.

*Corsets and allied garments.*—Firms making corsets and allied garments were not unionized to any great extent, except in New York City, only 3 union firms (in New Jersey and Pennsylvania) outside of that city being reported. Organization within union shops includes mainly the workers on the product itself and not miscellaneous plant employees. In New York City the average hourly earnings of workers in union shops were 55 cents and in nonunion shops 52.7 cents. However, only 12 percent of the union workers earned less than 40 cents an hour as compared to 21 percent of the nonunion workers, and 31 percent of the union workers, in contrast to 25 percent of the nonunion workers, earned 60 cents an hour or over.

*Women's and children's underwear and nightwear.*—Fifty-two percent of the establishments scheduled which manufactured underwear and nightwear were union shops, but usually only the productive workers were organized. In New York City, where the degree of unionization was greatest, average hourly earnings in union shops were 17 cents higher than in nonunion shops, or 53.7 cents as compared with 36.6 cents. In New Jersey, average earnings in union and nonunion shops were, respectively, 39.4 and 36.7 cents an hour. The difference in favor of workers in union shops in other areas ranged from 1.6 cents in Philadelphia to 13.6 cents in Ohio. In up-State New York, Pennsylvania outside of Philadelphia, California, and Chicago, employees in nonunion shops earned slightly more than



those in union shops, the difference in hourly earnings ranging from 1.6 cents to 4.2 cents.

### Weekly Hours and Earnings

Over three-fourths of the employees making unit-priced dresses and over one-half of the workers on blouses worked 35 hours or under in the weekly pay-roll period covered by the survey. The highest percentages of employees working over 44 hours were in the corsets and allied garments and the dozen-priced dresses branches. The hours worked by the employees in the different branches of the industry in the week recorded are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—Hours Worked in Week by Employees in Various Branches of Women's and Children's Apparel Industry

Hours worked	Percent of employees who worked specified hours					
	Dozen-priced dresses	Unit-priced dresses	Blouses	Children's and infants' outer-wear	Corsets and allied garments	Underwear and night-wear
Under 35.....	24.4	35.2	31.7	23.4	19.7	27.1
35.....	3.7	43.3	23.6	1.8	.7	1.5
Over 35, under 40.....	14.3	7.2	19.7	21.9	31.1	27.4
40.....	23.0	3.8	11.8	20.9	19.7	18.0
Over 40, under 44.....	12.2	3.9	4.7	12.4	9.8	10.6
44.....	17.1	4.6	6.1	15.8	8.9	11.4
Over 44.....	5.3	2.1	2.4	3.9	10.0	4.1
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of employees reported for.....	30,897	50,970	6,777	16,418	9,646	21,440

The largest percentage of the workers for whom weekly earnings were reported earned between \$10 and \$25 in the week recorded, though 42.9 percent of those working on unit-priced dresses earned \$25 and over. A percentage distribution of the employees in each branch of the industry by week's earnings is given in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Week's Earnings of Experienced Employees in Various Branches of Women's and Children's Apparel Industry

Week's earnings	Percent of employees earning specified amounts					
	Dozen-priced dresses	Unit-priced dresses	Blouses	Children's and infants' outer-wear	Corsets and allied garments	Underwear and night-wear
Under \$5.....	3.4	1.5	2.4	2.3	1.3	2.8
\$5, under \$10.....	14.9	5.2	8.1	11.6	6.6	12.6
\$10, under \$15.....	45.0	13.8	25.2	43.0	27.5	42.2
\$15, under \$20.....	24.2	20.1	31.4	27.5	35.9	25.7
\$20, under \$25.....	7.2	16.4	17.7	8.2	15.8	9.4
\$25, under \$30.....	2.7	13.1	7.7	2.8	6.6	3.6
\$30 and over.....	3.6	29.8	7.4	4.6	6.2	3.8
Number of firms.....	399	1,104	156	238	100	290
Number of employees.....	31,330	51,688	6,964	16,542	9,702	21,704
Average earnings.....	\$14.65	\$25.55	\$18.35	\$15.85	\$17.90	\$15.30

Average week's earnings during the pay period reported, regardless of time worked, ranged from \$14.65 on dozen-priced dresses to \$25.56 on unit-priced dresses. The highest average week's earnings of workers on dozen-priced dresses was \$18.10 in Boston, and the lowest, \$9.75 in Virginia. Employees in the unit-priced-dress firms had much higher week's earnings than those in the other branches of the industry. Average earnings ranging from \$25.83 to \$29.84 for the week recorded were reached by employees in this branch in Illinois, Boston, Philadelphia, New York City, and Ohio.

The range of average week's earnings by area in the other branches of the industry was as follows: Blouses, from \$15.35 in Michigan, Minnesota, and Washington combined to \$21.25 in New York City; children's and infants' outerwear, from \$11.50 in Texas to \$20 in New York City; corsets and allied garments, from \$13.25 in Massachusetts to \$21.40 in Chicago; underwear and outerwear, from \$12.45 in Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia to \$18.70 in New York City.



## HOUSEHOLD EMPLOYMENT IN NEW YORK STATE, 1938-39

DOMESTIC service has been recognized for a number of years as becoming a "problem" occupation, and national and community organizations have tried to find ways of solving the problem. The public employment offices in the State of New York, in their placement activities in the field of domestic employment, have encountered daily such difficulties as a shortage of trained and experienced workers; the preference for sleep-out jobs by workers and for sleep-in workers by employers; and the need of standards in this field as regards wages, hours of work, and working conditions. An analysis made by the New York State Employment Service of the data on work registrations, placements, and cancelations of job openings received from the public employment offices, discloses the various phases of the problem of household employment in that State.<sup>1</sup>

In the State of New York, 85 percent of the persons classified as domestic workers in the 1930 census were women and they comprised more than 17 percent of all gainfully employed women in the State. In recent years, however, there appears to have been a scarcity of well-trained domestics available for household employment, notwithstanding the great numbers of unemployed. Domestic employment is not an attractive occupation to young persons, not only because of the unfavorable hours, wages, and working conditions, but also because of the social stigma attached to it, the difficulty of maintaining family and social relationships because of the long hours, and

<sup>1</sup> New York. Department of Labor. Division of Placement and Unemployment Insurance. *Placement and Unemployment Insurance Activities* (Albany), December 1939.

the exclusion from the benefits of social insurance and such legislation as minimum wage and workmen's compensation.

During the year, July 1938 through June 1939, placements in domestic service made by the New York State Employment Service totaled 48,149. Less than two-fifths of these placements were "regular," that is, expected to last 1 month or longer. Almost every kind of household employment was represented, but the largest group placed (24,083) consisted of day workers to do cleaning, washing, and ironing, the next largest (18,900) being general houseworkers. The largest number of day workers (16,000) were employed for cleaning, and among the general houseworkers who were placed, maids to do cooking were the most numerous (11,300). The demand for domestic workers was thus, for the most part, for general houseworkers and day workers for cleaning.

The number of placements of the various kinds of domestic workers during the year 1938-39, and whether the placements were regular or temporary, may be seen in the following table.

*Placements of Domestics by New York State Employment Service, by Occupation, July 1938-June 1939*

Occupation	Total			Men			Women		
	Total	Regu- lar	Tem- po- rary	Total	Regu- lar	Tem- po- rary	Total	Regu- lar	Tem- po- rary
Total placements.....	48,149	18,089	30,060	5,516	903	4,613	42,633	17,186	25,447
Butlers.....	31	23	8	29	23	6	2	-----	2
Chauffeurs <sup>1</sup> .....	250	165	85	246	162	84	4	3	1
Companions.....	59	46	13	11	9	2	48	37	11
Cooks.....	273	192	81	14	12	2	259	180	79
Day workers.....	24,083	1,208	22,875	719	29	690	23,364	1,179	22,185
Cleaning.....	15,984	750	15,234	293	19	274	15,691	731	14,960
General.....	7,369	436	6,933	420	9	411	6,949	427	6,522
Washing and ironing.....	730	22	708	6	1	5	724	21	703
Housekeepers.....	17	16	1	-----	-----	-----	17	16	1
Farm.....	13	12	1	-----	-----	-----	13	12	1
Fraternity.....	4	4	-----	-----	-----	-----	4	4	-----
Housemen.....	4,424	627	3,797	4,364	598	3,766	60	29	31
Handymen.....	4,166	596	3,570	4,126	581	3,545	40	15	25
Rug beaters.....	58	-----	58	57	-----	57	1	-----	1
Wall washers.....	40	5	35	37	4	33	3	1	2
Window cleaners.....	160	26	134	144	13	131	16	13	3
Laundresses—men and women.....	105	105	-----	4	4	-----	101	101	-----
Maids.....	18,900	15,705	3,195	127	66	61	18,773	15,639	3,134
Chamber.....	584	348	236	10	-----	10	574	348	226
Dining room.....	2	2	-----	-----	-----	-----	2	2	-----
General, cooking.....	11,304	9,642	1,662	80	53	27	11,224	9,589	1,635
General, no cooking.....	6,130	5,080	1,050	26	9	17	6,104	5,071	1,033
Nurses and governesses.....	580	388	192	3	-----	3	577	388	189
Parlor.....	20	15	5	-----	-----	-----	20	15	5
Personal and valet.....	21	13	8	3	1	2	18	12	6
Other.....	259	217	42	5	3	2	254	214	40
Unclassified.....	7	2	5	2	-----	2	5	2	3

<sup>1</sup> Includes chauffeur placements that were part of couple jobs.

The number of placements was relatively large when compared with the number of applicants for household employment. Applications for domestic employment have decreased greatly in the last 4 years.



In September and October 1939, only 17,034 applicants were registered, as compared with 51,185 in April 1936. Registration for domestic work is not mandatory, as such workers are not covered under the unemployment-insurance law. As the day workers placed usually obtain only temporary employment, they reregister at the termination of each placement and become available for employment again.

### *Reasons Why Some Openings Are not Filled*

During the 12-month period, July 1938-June 1939, 1,923 job orders were canceled, presumably because no qualified applicants were available. Sometimes, however, no attempt is made to fill jobs, because it would be impossible to interest job seekers in them. In other cases, even though applicants may be secured and referred, they may be rejected by the employer. The State Employment Service cites the following examples as typical of jobs where the pay offered was so small that applicants could not be interested:

A request for a maid in a private home, wages of about \$2 a week with housing and meals, and a workweek of 72 hours; a request for a maid also to do cooking and work 72 hours a week for \$4.50, including room and board; an order for a maid-cook at \$7 per week with housing and meals for a workweek of 60 hours; an opening for similar work offered a weekly wage of \$3, room and board, for a 72-hour week. A housekeeper turned down a live-in job paying \$3 for 54 hours a week; another refused a position at \$7 a week with meals only. A maid-cook rejected an offer of about \$6 with housing and meals for a 72-hour week.

Unsatisfactory living and working conditions which make it impossible to fill job openings for domestics often involve personal considerations, such as having to share a room with one of the family, a very large family making the job too hard, or the house being so large that the required work could not be done in the hours specified. The lack of regular hours of work and of quitting, in most live-in jobs, is a common cause of dissatisfaction. Various other conditions have been found by the Employment Service to make jobs undesirable.

If a live-in domestic must share a room with an infant or have to get up at 2 o'clock in the morning to feed the baby, the job may be regarded as an undesirable one. The inclusion of heavy laundry or window and woodwork washing is frequently objectionable to the applicant. There are also special circumstances which make for unsatisfactory working conditions, such as the numerous interruptions caused by telephone calls and visits in a doctor's home, especially where the domestic is expected to take on some of the functions of nurse as well. One opening could not be filled by the service because applicants objected to sleeping in a foyer with no ventilation. Another case involved an opening in the home of a young married business couple who spent evenings playing bridge until a late hour. Since the maid's sleeping quarters were in the dining room where the bridge games took place, she was compelled to retire late, yet had to rise early in order to feed a 1-year-old infant.

In New York City over one-third of the cancelations of job openings in domestic employment were because the job was regarded as unsatis-

factory. In nondomestic occupations the proportion of unfavorable jobs was only 12 percent.

A possible shortage of trained domestic workers was indicated by some of the difficulties experienced by the New York Employment Service in filling openings in domestic service. The lack of standards as to wages, hours, and living conditions, however, had its effect on the available supply of such workers, it was said. Only when domestic employment becomes attractive enough will more workers be willing to enter this field of employment.

Organized groups interested in this problem of household employment have tried or offered solutions of various types. These include: Establishment of wage and hour standards; education of the employer as regards standards and the correct attitude toward the worker and the occupation; public training schools for household workers; voluntary agreements between employer and employee; unionization of the workers; inclusion of domestic workers under minimum-wage, social-insurance, and workmen's compensation legislation.



## WORKING CONDITIONS OF DOMESTIC SERVANTS IN GERMANY

RECENT decrees of German Labor Trustees have fixed the money wages of domestic servants in one Province and the remuneration in kind for those in another. Taken together, they are probably indicative of the wages and working conditions of this class of labor in Germany.

### *Money Wages in Rheinland*

The Labor Trustee of the Rheinland in Germany on June 5, 1940, fixed the following monthly wages for female domestic servants in peasant and city households:

Servants, compulsory year:

		Peasant households	City households
Age 14 to 15 years:			
First half year	Marks <sup>1</sup>	12	10 to 12
Second half year	do	15	
Age 15 to 17 years:			
First half year	do	15	12 to 15
Second half year	do	17	
Age 18 and over:			
First half year	do	18	15 to 18
Second half year	do	22	
Apprentices:			
First half year	do	12	8 to 10
Second half year	do	15	
Third half year	do	18	12 to 15
Fourth half year	do	22	

<sup>1</sup> Average exchange rate of mark in June 1940—40 cents.

*Remuneration in Kind in Westfalen-Niederrhein*

The remuneration of German domestic servants in Westfalen-Niederrhein, Germany, is prescribed in great detail in rules issued by the Labor Trustee of the district on May 16, 1940.<sup>2</sup> The money wage is to be that customary in a given locality, and in accordance with the ability of the servant to perform his duties. The wages in kind are to consist of free food, housing, bed linen, towels, and working clothes, or their equivalent value in money. If it is not possible to estimate the value, the appraisal rules of social insurance are to be applied.

The domestic servants are to be accorded the use of the bathing facilities of the household. If such facilities are lacking, the employer must pay the cost of an outside bath every 2 weeks. Free laundry work must also be furnished to domestic servants. If a servant lives farther than 3 kilometers<sup>3</sup> from his workplace, his carfare must be paid.

Servants working half days only, should receive at least one meal a day. A servant living in the household is to have a sleeping room, with bed, washstand, chair, table, lamp, trunk or a closet, and window. The order specifies that the servant's sleeping room should not be used as a trash room or as a passage, should be so built that the door can be closed, and in cold weather should be sufficiently heated. If there are several servants in the same household, they may sleep in the same room, but it should be large enough to accommodate all of them, and each should be provided with separate bed, washstand, and trunk or closet which can be locked.

The workday is 10 hours; 9 hours must be provided for sleep. Servants should be required to work on Sundays and holidays only when there is a special need for their work. In each week and after each second Sunday, the servant must have one free afternoon and evening, or if he wishes, his two free half days may be combined into one free day, or added to his vacation time. Servants should not be out later than midnight, and those under 21 years of age, not later than 10 p. m.

Paid vacations are to be granted to domestic servants over 18 years of age, as follows: In the first year of service in the same household, after six months of service, 7 days; in the second year, 8 days; in the third year, 10 days; in the fourth year, 15 days; and for over 4 years of service, a period agreed upon.

<sup>2</sup> Reichsarbeitsministerium, Reichsarbeitsblatt (Berlin), June 15, 1940, Part IV, pp. 685-687.

<sup>3</sup> Kilometer=3,280.8 feet.



# Housing Conditions

## HOUSING LEGISLATION IN THE UNITED STATES

HOUSING legislation in the States and Territories has been greatly extended as a result of the active participation of the Federal Government in a program to provide better living conditions for families of low income. Whereas in 1932 New York and Puerto Rico were the only jurisdictions making provision for public aid to low-cost housing, more than three-fourths of the States now have public housing-authority laws. In addition, 16 jurisdictions have authorized the organization of limited-dividend corporations. A number of States have also enacted slum-clearance legislation which authorizes municipalities to exercise their police power for the repairing, closing, alteration, or demolition of dwellings unfit for human habitation.

The primary purpose of housing-authority legislation is to provide for the construction and administration of public low-rent housing and slum-clearance projects. In contrast, limited-dividend corporations that are formed under the laws of the respective jurisdictions are usually private bodies and organized to provide housing at a profit which, however, is strictly limited. Because of the profit feature, limited-dividend corporations have not been of much aid to the lowest income group, but have been of benefit to wage earners with incomes ranging from \$1,500 to \$2,500.

The United States Housing Act of 1937 established the United States Housing Authority which has been empowered to provide financial aid to local public housing agencies to assist them in the construction and operation of low-rent housing and slum-clearance projects. In addition to this form of aid, Federal laws have been enacted to render substantial assistance to home financing.

### *Local Housing Authorities*

Prior to 1933 there were only 2 jurisdictions providing public aid for low-cost housing projects. Under the impetus of Federal legislation, however, housing-authority laws had been enacted in 25 jurisdictions at the end of 1936. After the passage of the Federal Housing Act in 1937, a number of the States immediately adopted enabling legislation authorizing public agencies to undertake low-rent housing and slum-clearance projects, and many of the States already having

such laws enacted amendatory legislation. At the present time 38 States,<sup>1</sup> the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico have laws of this type.

In general the legislation provides for the establishment of State or local housing authorities which are nonprofit public bodies and often operate on a partially self-liquidating basis. Conditions are established for raising capital and accepting governmental aid in the form of loans or grants. In many instances the laws deal with the exercise of the power of eminent domain in condemning property for public use, and specifically include tax exemptions on the indebtedness and property of low-cost building agencies.

The housing authorities established for a particular city or county are usually composed of five members appointed by the mayor or the governing body of the county, with administrative functions vested in this group. In some States, however, there is a combination of local operation with some supervision by a central housing authority. Most of the laws empower the city council or other governing body to establish the authority, and in a few States the city has supervisory jurisdiction over the authority after it begins to function.

In a number of jurisdictions housing authorities are established only in special areas. The basis is usually determined by the size of the city or town. In Missouri, for example, the restriction is to cities or counties having a population of 600,000 or more, thus limiting operation to the city of St. Louis. Generally the limitations range from 5,000 to 30,000 population. In other States the same result is effected by limiting the application of the law to cities of certain classes. In the majority of the States, however, the law is applicable to counties regardless of size. In the remaining jurisdictions the establishment of housing authorities is decided on the basis of need.

Generally the State does not contribute to housing projects or make loans or grant subsidies to local housing authorities. In a number of jurisdictions, municipalities are specifically forbidden even to be responsible for the bonds or other indebtedness of the housing authorities. However, in New York, recent legislation has authorized the making of State loans and the granting of periodic subsidies to cities or local housing authorities. In addition, the municipalities are permitted now to make loans and grant subsidies to housing authorities and to make loans to housing companies. It is interesting to note in this connection that, since January 1, 1939, a special act of the New York Legislature is required to create any housing authority.

<sup>1</sup> Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. The 10 States without such legislation are Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Minnesota, Nevada, New Hampshire, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Utah, and Wyoming.

Exercise of the right of eminent domain is provided for by all housing-authority laws. However, in some States, including Michigan, New Mexico, and Rhode Island, this power is vested in the city or county instead of in the housing authority. Under many laws the procedure follows that laid down in the existing statutes, while others provide for special methods to be used in the exercise of the right. Similarly, all laws make it possible for the housing authorities to accept Government aid in the form of loans and grants and provide for the raising of funds through special issues of bonds, notes, debentures, etc.

In all of the States having housing legislation, the property of housing authorities is exempt from taxation. Most of the housing statutes specifically provide for this exemption. In some States, however, the property is exempt because of other statutory or constitutional provisions. In addition to exempting real property from taxation, more than two-thirds of the States provide for tax exemption of bonds and other forms of indebtedness.

The general functions of the housing authorities established by this type of legislation are extremely broad. Although the immediate objective is to take advantage of Government aid in order to make housing available at low cost as rapidly as possible, many of the laws empower housing authorities to study long-term housing needs in their respective jurisdictions, and to determine the extent of overcrowding, as well as to plan the course of future development.

### *Limited-Dividend Corporations*

In addition to the general laws authorizing public low-rent housing and slum-clearance projects, 15 States<sup>2</sup> and the District of Columbia have enacted legislation authorizing limited-dividend housing corporations under the supervision, regulation, and control of State housing boards or commissions to provide safe and sanitary housing for families of low income and to eliminate congested and insanitary housing conditions. The profits of such corporations are limited by statute. They are usually authorized to acquire property by eminent domain with the approval of the board or commission.

In contrast with the housing-authority laws, administrative supervision of limited-dividend corporations is highly centralized, being a function of State boards of housing especially established for this purpose or of existing agencies having a relation to housing matters. State boards generally have the power to conduct hearings and to study housing conditions to determine the need for housing projects, to approve the area in which projects will be located, to approve the financing of projects, to fix the rents charged, and in general to supervise all projects.

<sup>2</sup> Arkansas, California, Delaware, Florida, Illinois, Kansas, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Texas, and Virginia.



*Federal Activities*

The United States Housing Authority, which was established by the United States Housing Act of 1937,<sup>3</sup> is authorized to provide financial assistance to legally constituted public-housing agencies, to assist in the development of low-rent housing and slum-clearance projects which local authorities design, build, and operate on a rental basis. The financial assistance which the Authority may render consists of repayable loans which may equal 90 percent of the total development cost, and annual contributions for the purpose of bringing rents within the reach of families in the lowest income group now living in slums.<sup>4</sup>

In an effort to expedite the building of low-cost housing which is needed in connection with the defense program, Congress recently passed acts permitting the War and Navy Departments and the United States Housing Authority to cooperate in making necessary housing available for persons engaged in national defense activities (Public Acts Nos. 671 and 781, 76th Cong.). These acts authorize the War or Navy Department to initiate projects to provide dwellings on or near military or naval reservations, posts, or bases, for rental to enlisted men with families and to employees of the War and Navy Departments assigned to duty at the reservation, post, or base. Such projects may be developed by either Department or by the United States Housing Authority.

In order to assist home financing as well as to stimulate dwelling construction and to create a sounder mortgage system, the National Housing Act was enacted in 1934.<sup>5</sup> This act established the Federal Housing Administration which was authorized to insure loans made for home repairs and renovation. The act also provided for residential mortgages on a long-term basis. In 1938 this act was amended and provision was made for renewing the insurance on repair loans, for insuring mortgages up to 90 percent of the value of small-owner-occupied homes, and for insuring mortgages on rental property.

Other means by which the Federal Government aids in home ownership include the Federal Home Loan Bank Board.<sup>6</sup> This Board, which was created in 1932, supervises four separate agencies operating in the field of home mortgage finance—Federal Home Loan Bank System, Home Owners Loan Corporation, Federal Savings and Loan System, and Federal Savings and Loan Insurance Corporation. The major function of the Federal Home Loan Bank Board is to encourage

<sup>3</sup> Supp. V. to U. S. Code, 1934, Title 42, secs. 1401-1430.

<sup>4</sup> For a more detailed discussion of this program, see *Monthly Labor Review*, August 1940, p. 273.

<sup>5</sup> U. S. Code 1934, Title 12, secs. 1701-1731; for amendments, see Supp. V to U. S. Code 1934.

<sup>6</sup> U. S. Code 1934, Title 12, secs. 1421-1468; for amendments see Supp. V. to U. S. Code, 1934.

and assist private capital to make available on an economical basis an adequate volume of long-term home mortgage credit, and to provide at the same time means for sound investment of small savings.

### *Constitutionality of State Housing Legislation*

In 1939 and 1940 a number of decisions upheld the constitutionality of State housing legislation and at the present time (August 1, 1940) such legislation has been sustained in 25 States.<sup>7</sup> In some of these jurisdictions, the housing statutes have been upheld in several cases.

As pointed out in previous articles on the constitutionality of State housing legislation,<sup>8</sup> these statutes have generally been upheld on the ground that the elimination of unsafe and dilapidated houses is a legitimate exercise of the police power. In holding the State law valid on this ground, the Supreme Court of Nebraska in a recent decision<sup>9</sup> declared that the statute did not violate the due process clause of the State or Federal Constitution since in eradicating slums "the housing authority lightens the burden of the city in protecting all citizens against crime, disease, and immorality." Similarly, the Maryland Court of Appeals sustained the housing statute of that State and declared that the law was created to provide for the removal of conditions which threaten the health and safety of the community.<sup>10</sup>

In a case decided by the Supreme Court of Colorado,<sup>11</sup> it was held that the housing enabling acts of the State were enacted pursuant to the police power of the State, pertaining to a subject of State concern, and therefore, did not violate the State constitutional provision granting power to home-rule cities to legislate on all local and municipal matters. In a number of decisions, the courts have held that the housing laws do not improperly delegate legislative powers, although generally they confer discretion on a local housing authority to select the site for a low-rent housing development, etc.

An analysis of all relevant decisions clearly indicates the validity of housing legislation as an exercise of the police power of the State. The courts have also sustained the tax-exemption features of these laws and the right of housing authorities to exercise the power of eminent domain.

<sup>7</sup> Alabama, Arizona, California, Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and West Virginia.

<sup>8</sup> See Monthly Labor Review, June 1939, p. 1333, January 1940, p. 104.

<sup>9</sup> *Lennox v. Housing Authority of City of Omaha*, 290 N. W. 451. (See also 291 N. W. 100.)

<sup>10</sup> *Matthaei v. Housing Authority of Baltimore City*, 9 Atl. (2d) 835.

<sup>11</sup> *People ex. rel. Stokes v. Newton*, 101 Pac. (2d) 21.

In addition to the cases already cited, housing legislation has been upheld in a number of cases in other States.<sup>12</sup>

### Tabular Analysis of Laws

The following table shows in condensed form the major provisions of the State housing laws.

#### Principal Provisions of State Housing Laws, as of August 1, 1940

##### HOUSING AUTHORITIES

Jurisdiction and date of original enactment	Area of operation	Creation	State administrative control	Powers
Alabama (1935) ..	Cities .....	Housing authority (5 members) created by city council after hearing on petition of 25 residents.	State Public Works Board with supervisory power over housing authorities.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid.
Arizona (1939) .....	Cities or towns.	Housing authority (5 members) created by governing body of municipality. The authority acts as agent for such city or town.	None .....	City or town may issue bonds and acquire, construct, lease, and sell properties. Municipality may delegate all its powers to housing authority except power to borrow money, issue bonds, and acquire real property.
Arkansas (1937) ..	Cities and counties.	Housing authority (5 members) created by governing body of municipality.	.....do.....	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid.
California (1938) ..	Cities (defined as cities and cities and counties) and counties.	Housing authorities are established in each city and county, but may not transact business unless governing body by resolution declares need for such authority to function. Five commissioners are appointed by mayor in a city and by governing body in a county.	.....do.....	Do.

<sup>12</sup> Alabama (*Brammer v. Housing Authority*, 195 So. 256); Arizona (*Humphrey v. City of Phoenix*, 102 Pac. (2d) 82); California (*Housing Authority v. Dockweiler*, 94 Pac. (2d) 794); Florida (*Marvin v. Housing Authority of Jacksonville*, 183 So. 145); Georgia (*Williamson v. Housing Authority, etc. of Augusta*, 199 S. E. 43); Illinois (*Krause v. Peoria Housing Authority*, 19 N. E. (2d) 193); Indiana (*Edwards v. Housing Authority*, 19 N. E. (2d) 741); Kentucky (*Spahn v. Stewart*, 103 S. W. (2d) 651); Louisiana (*State ex. rel. Porter v. Housing Authority*, 182 So. 725); Massachusetts (*Allydonn Realty Corp. v. Holyoke Housing Authority*, 23 N. E. (2d) 665); Michigan (*In re Brewster Street Housing Site*, 289 N. W. 493); Missouri (*Laret Investment Co. v. Dickmann*, 134 S. W. (2d) 65); Montana (*Rutherford v. City of Great Falls*, 86 Pac. (2d) 656); New Jersey (*Romano v. Housing Authority*, 12 Atl. (2d) 384); New York (*New York Housing Authority v. Muller*, 1 N. E. (2d) 153); North Carolina (*Wells v. Housing Authority*, 197 S. E. 693); Ohio (*State ex. rel. Ellis v. Sherrill*, 25 N. E. (2d) 844); Pennsylvania (*Dornan v. Philadelphia Housing Authority*, 200 Atl. 834); South Carolina (*McNulty v. Owens*, 199 S. E. 425); Tennessee (*Knoxville Housing Authority v. City of Knoxville*, 123 S. W. (2d) 1085); Texas (*Housing Authority of City of Dallas v. Higginbotham*, 143 S. W. (2d) 79); and West Virginia (*Chapman v. Huntington Housing Authority*, 3 S. E. (2d) 502).



## Principal Provisions of State Housing Laws, as of August 1, 1940—Continued

## HOUSING AUTHORITIES—Continued

Jurisdiction and date of original enactment	Area of operation	Creation	State administrative control	Powers
Colorado (1935) ..	Second - class cities having population of 5,000 or over and first-class cities.	Housing authority (5 members) appointed by mayor after hearing on petition of 25 residents.	None .....	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Property and obligations are tax exempt.
Connecticut (1937).	Cities, towns, and boroughs of over 10,000 population.	Housing authorities are established in each municipality, but may not transact business unless governing body by resolution declares need for such authority. Five commissioners are appointed by mayor in a city and by governing body in a town.	.....do.....	Do.
Delaware (1934) ..	Any county or part of a county.	Housing authorities (6 members) may be created by State Board of Housing.	State Board of Housing with supervisory power over housing authorities.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Property deemed public property for public use.
District of Columbia (1934).	Inhabited alleys. <sup>1</sup>	Alley Dwelling Authority (3 members) was established by President of United States.	None .....	To replat, pave, and improve land, and to remove, improve and construct buildings; to manage, lease, or sell land and buildings; to raise funds; to accept Government aid; to assist limited - dividend (not over 6 percent) corporations with loans at not less than 5 percent.
Florida (1937) ....	Cities of over 5,000 population.	Housing authorities are established in each city, but may not transact business unless governing body by resolution declares need for such authority. Five commissioners are appointed by governing body.	None .....	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid.
Georgia (1937) ....	Cities of over 5,000 population and counties.	Housing authorities are established in each city and county but may not transact business unless governing body by resolution declares need for such authority to function. Five commissioners are appointed by mayor in a city and by governing body in a county.	State Housing Authority Board with supervisory power over housing authorities.	Do.

<sup>1</sup> This is not a general housing-authority law, having application to inhabited alleys only and combining features usually found in both housing-authority and limited-dividend corporation legislation. An alley is defined as (1) any court, thoroughfare, or passage, private or public, less than 30 feet wide at any point; any (2) any court, thoroughfare, or passage, private or public, 30 feet or more in width, that does not open directly with a width of at least 30 feet upon a public street that is at least 40 feet wide from building line to building line.

## Principal Provisions of State Housing Laws, as of August 1, 1940—Continued

## HOUSING AUTHORITIES—Continued

Jurisdiction and date of original enactment	Area of operation	Creation	State administrative control	Powers
Hawaii (1935).....	Territory of Hawaii.	Authority (5 members) was established by statute.	Hawaii Housing Authority.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties or create corporations to act as agents; to raise funds subject to approval of President; to accept Government aid. Property is tax exempt.
Idaho (1939).....	Cities and villages.	Housing authorities are established in each municipality, but may not transact business unless governing body by resolution declares need for such authority. Five commissioners are appointed by mayor or other executive officer.	None.....	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid.
Illinois (1934).....	Cities, villages, towns, and counties.	Housing authorities may be created by State Housing Board.	State Housing Board with supervisory power over housing authorities.	Do.
Indiana (1937).....	Cities, towns, and counties.	Housing authorities are established in each city, town, and county, but may not transact business unless governing body by resolution declares need for such authority. Five commissioners are appointed by mayor in a city and by governing body in a town or county.	None.....	Do.
Kentucky (1934).....	Cities of first, second, third, fourth, and fifth classes, and counties or groups of counties.	Municipal housing commissions and county housing commissions (5 members) may be established by cities and counties. Regional housing commissions for two or more counties (3 or more members) may be established by county judge.	.....do.....	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Property and obligations are tax exempt.
Louisiana (1936).....	Cities of over 20,000 population.	City housing authority (5 members) authorized by city council on petition of 25 residents.	.....do.....	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Indebtedness and property are tax exempt.
Maryland (1937).....	Cities (defined as cities and those having population of over 1,000) and counties.	Housing authorities are established in each city and county, but may not transact business unless governing body by resolution declares need for such authority to function. Five commissioners are appointed by mayor in a city and by governing body in a county.	.....do.....	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Property and obligations are tax exempt.
Massachusetts (1935).	Cities and towns.	Housing authorities (5 members in cities and 4 in towns) may be established in a city by vote of mayor and city council and in a town by vote at town meeting.	State Housing Board with supervisory power over housing authorities.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Property is subject to same taxes as other real property.

## Principal Provisions of State Housing Laws, as of August 1, 1940—Continued

## HOUSING AUTHORITIES—Continued

Jurisdiction and date of original enactment	Area of operation	Creation	State administrative control	Powers
Michigan (1933)	Cities and incorporated villages.	Housing commission (5 members) created by ordinance.	None	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid.
Mississippi (1938).	Cities and counties.	Housing authorities are established in each city and county, but may not transact business unless governing body by resolution declares need for such authority to function. Five commissioners are appointed by mayor in a city and by governing body in a county.	do	Do.
Missouri (1935)	Cities and counties having populations of 600,000 or over (applicable only to St. Louis).	do	do	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Property is tax exempt.
Montana (1935)	Cities of first or second class.	Housing authority (5 members) created by mayor after hearing by city council on petition of 25 residents.	do	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Property and obligations are tax exempt.
Nebraska (1935)	Cities of metropolitan class and first class and all counties.	Housing authority (5 members) appointed by mayor in a city, and governing body in a county. In metropolitan cities, housing authorities are subject to supervision of city council.	do	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Property is tax exempt.
New Jersey (1933)	Municipalities and counties.	Housing authorities of municipalities and counties (5 members) may be established by governing body of municipality or county. Regional housing authorities (5 or more members) may be established for two or more municipalities by joint action of respective governing bodies.	State Housing Authority with supervisory power over housing authorities.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Indebtedness and property are tax exempt.
New Mexico (1939).	Cities, towns, and municipalities.	Housing authorities (5 members) are created by governing body of municipality. Authority acts as agent for municipality.	do	City or town may issue bonds, and acquire, construct, lease, and sell properties. Municipality may delegate all its powers to housing authority except power to borrow money, issue bonds, and acquire real property.
New York (1934)	Cities, towns, and villages.	Housing authorities are established by special act of legislature.	State Superintendent of Housing with supervisory power over housing authorities.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept public aid. Indebtedness and property are tax exempt.



## Principal Provisions of State Housing Laws, as of August 1, 1940—Continued

## HOUSING AUTHORITIES—Continued

Jurisdiction and date of original enactment	Area of operation	Creation	State administrative control	Powers
North Carolina (1935).	Cities, towns, and incorporated villages with over 5,000 population.	Housing authorities (5 members) created by mayor after hearing by city council on petition of 25 residents.	State Utilities Commission with supervisory power over housing authorities.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to form corporations for purposes of act; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Property is exempt from local and municipal taxes, bonds are exempt when held by Federal Government or purchaser dealing through Government.
North Dakota (1937).	Cities with population of over 5,000, and counties.	Housing authorities are established in each city and county, but may not transact business unless governing body by resolution declares need for such authority to function. Five commissioners are appointed by mayor in a city and by governing body in a county.	None.....	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Property and obligations are tax exempt.
Ohio (1933).....	Any portion of county comprising two or more subdivisions but less than all territory of county.	Metropolitan housing authorities (5 members) may be established by State Board of Housing.	State Board of Housing.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Property is tax exempt.
Oregon (1937).....	Cities and towns with over 7,500 population, and counties.	Housing authorities are established in each city and county, but may not transact business unless governing body by resolution declares need for such authority to function. Five commissioners are appointed by mayor in a city and by governing body in a county.	None.....	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Property and bonds are tax exempt.
Pennsylvania (1935).	Cities of the first, second, second class A, and third class, with 30,000 population or over and counties.	.....do.....	.....do.....	Do.
Puerto Rico (1938)	Municipalities	Housing authorities are established in each municipality, but may not transact business unless governing body by resolution declares need for such authority. Five commissioners are appointed by mayor.	Puerto Rico Housing Authority (5 members) appointed by Governor.	Do.
Rhode Island (1935).	Cities.....	Housing authorities (5 members) created after hearing on petition of 25 residents.	None.....	Do.
South Carolina (1934).	Cities and towns with over 5,000 population and counties.	Housing authorities are established in each city and county, but may not transact business unless governing body by resolution declares need for such authority to function. Five commissioners are appointed by mayor in a city and by governing body in a county.	.....do.....	Do.

## Principal Provisions of State Housing Laws, as of August 1, 1940—Continued

## HOUSING AUTHORITIES—Continued

Jurisdiction and date of original enactment	Area of operation	Creation	State administrative control	Powers
Tennessee (1935)	Cities and towns with over 2,000 population.	Housing authorities (5 members) created by city council after hearing on petition of 25 residents.	None	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid.
Texas (1937)	Cities	Housing authorities are established in each city, but may not transact business unless governing body by resolution declares need for such authority. Five commissioners are appointed by governing body.	do	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Property and bonds are tax exempt.
Vermont (1937)	Cities and towns with over 10,000 population.	Housing authorities are established in each municipality, but may not transact business unless governing body by resolution declares need for such authority. Five commissioners are appointed by mayor in a city and by governing body in a town.	do	Do.
Virginia (1938)	Cities and counties.	Housing authorities are established in each city and county, but may not transact business unless governing body by resolution declares need for such authority to function. Five commissioners are appointed by mayor in a city and by governing body in a county.	do	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept government aid. Property is tax exempt.
Washington (1939)	do	do	do	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds and to accept Government aid. Property and bonds are tax exempt.
West Virginia (1933)	Cities	Housing authorities (5 members) created by local government.	do	Do.
Wisconsin (1935)	do	do	do	Do.

## LIMITED-DIVIDEND CORPORATIONS

Arkansas (1933)	General	3 or more persons may incorporate limited-dividend corporation by filing articles of incorporation with secretary of state.	State Board of Housing (5 members), with supervisory power over limited-dividend corporations.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds; to pay dividends not exceeding 6 percent per annum and fix rents taking into account taxes.
California (1933)	do	Limited-dividend corporations may be incorporated in accordance with general corporation law, subject to condition that a certificate of approval by the Commission of Immigration and Housing be attached to articles of incorporation when filed with secretary of state.	Commission of Immigration and Housing, with supervisory power over limited-dividend corporations.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds; to pay dividends not exceeding 6 percent per annum. Taxes to be included in fixed charges.

## Principal Provisions of State Housing Laws, as of August 1, 1940—Continued

## LIMITED-DIVIDEND CORPORATIONS—Continued

Jurisdiction and date of original enactment	Area of operation	Creation	State administrative control	Powers
Delaware (1933)	General	3 or more persons may incorporate limited-dividend corporation by filing articles of incorporation with secretary of state.	State Board of Housing (5 members) with supervisory power over limited-dividend corporations.	To acquire, construct, lease, operate, and sell properties; to raise funds; to pay dividends not exceeding 8 percent per annum. Buildings and improvements may be exempted from city taxes and if so also from State and county taxes.
District of Columbia (1904)	do	Washington Sanitary Housing Co. was created by act of Congress as limited-dividend corporation with authority to build sanitary houses at low rental.	None	To acquire, hold, improve, rent, mortgage, sell, and convey property.
Florida (1933)	do	3 or more persons may incorporate limited-dividend corporation by filing articles of incorporation with secretary of state.	State Board of Housing (5 members) with supervisory power over limited-dividend corporations.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds; to pay dividends not exceeding 6 percent per annum. Taxes included in fixed charges.
Illinois (1933)	do	3 or more persons desiring to form limited-dividend corporation may file statement of incorporation with secretary of state. No such statement shall be filed unless approved by State Housing Board. Secretary shall thereupon issue certificate of incorporation.	State Housing Board (7 members), or municipal housing authority in towns of over 50,000 population, with supervisory power over limited-dividend corporations.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds; to pay dividends not exceeding 6½ percent per annum. Taxes included in operating charges.
Kansas (1933)	do	3 or more persons may incorporate limited-dividend corporation by filing articles of incorporation with secretary of state.	State Board of Housing (3 members), or in counties of 18,000 or more population board of county commissioners, with supervisory power over limited-dividend corporations.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds; to pay dividends not exceeding 6 percent per annum. Taxes included in maintenance charges.
Massachusetts (1933)	do	3 or more persons may form limited-dividend corporation by filing agreement of association with secretary of state. Agreement must be accompanied by certificate of State board of housing that it consents to formation of corporation.	State Board of Housing (5 members) with supervisory power over limited-dividend corporations.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds; to pay dividends not exceeding 6 percent per annum; to receive Government aid. No tax exemption.



## Principal Provisions of State Housing Laws, as of August 1, 1940—Continued

## LIMITED-DIVIDEND CORPORATIONS—Continued

Jurisdiction and date of original enactment	Area of operation	Creation	State administrative control	Powers
New Jersey (1933)	General	3 or more persons may incorporate public housing corporation by filing certificate of incorporation with secretary of state in conformity with general corporation law. No certificate may be filed until approved by State Housing Authority evidenced by certificate.	State Housing Authority with supervisory power over public housing corporations.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds; to pay dividends not exceeding 6 percent per annum. Tax exempt (State and local) except fees for incorporation and franchise tax of 10 percent of gross income.
New York (1926)	do	3 or more persons may form limited-dividend corporation by filing certificate of incorporation with secretary of state. No certificate may be filed unless accompanied by certificate of State Superintendent of Housing that he consents to same.	State Superintendent of Housing with supervisory power over limited-dividend corporations.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties subject to approval of State Superintendent of Housing; to pay dividends not exceeding 6 percent per annum. Companies are exempt from State taxation. Bonds and dividends of companies are exempt from all taxation. Municipalities are authorized to exempt such companies from municipal taxation for not more than 50 years.
North Carolina (1933)	do	3 or more persons may incorporate limited-dividend corporation by filing articles of incorporation with secretary of state.	State Board of Housing (5 members) with supervisory power over limited-dividend corporations.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds; to pay dividends not exceeding 6 percent per annum. Taxes included in main tenance charges.
Ohio (1932)	do	3 or more persons may incorporate limited-dividend corporation by filing articles of incorporation with secretary of state.	State Board of Housing (7 members) with supervisory power over limited-dividend corporations.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds; to pay dividends not exceeding 6 percent per annum. Taxes included in operating charges.
Pennsylvania (1937)	do	3 or more persons may incorporate limited-dividend corporation by filing articles of incorporation with Department of State. No articles may be filed unless accompanied by certificate of State Board of Housing that it consents to formation of corporation.	State Board of Housing (5 members) with supervisory power over limited-dividend corporation.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties in accordance with regulations established by State Board of Housing.
South Carolina (1933)	do	3 or more persons may incorporate limited-dividend corporation by filing articles of incorporation with secretary of state.	do	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds; to pay dividends not exceeding 6 percent per annum. Taxes included in fixed charges

## Principal Provisions of State Housing Laws, as of August 1, 1940—Continued

## LIMITED-DIVIDEND CORPORATIONS—Continued

Jurisdiction and date of original enactment	Area of operation	Creation	State administrative control	Powers
Texas (1933).....	General.....	3 or more persons may incorporate limited-dividend corporation by filing articles of incorporation with secretary of state.	State Board of Housing (7 members) with supervisory power over limited - dividend corporations.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds; to pay dividends not exceeding 6 percent per annum; to accept Government aid. Taxes included in maintenance charges.
Virginia (1933).....	Cities of over 170,000 (Census of 1930).	do.....	State Board of Housing (3 members) with supervisory power over limited - dividend corporations.	To acquire, construct, operate, lease, and sell properties; to raise funds; to pay dividends not exceeding 6 percent per annum. Taxes included in maintenance charges.

# Cooperation

## CONSUMERS' COOPERATIVES, 1939<sup>1</sup>

### Summary

SUBSTANTIAL increases in volume of business done in 1939 by cooperative associations, both wholesale and retail, as well as in their net earnings, are shown by data obtained by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This increase was accomplished in spite of a 2-percent drop in the level of both retail and wholesale prices as compared with 1938, and was in contrast to the situation in 1937 when the dollar sales of both types of associations declined.

No general survey of retail cooperatives was made by the Bureau for 1939, but computations based upon a reporting sample—mostly associations handling merchandise or petroleum products—indicate a 6.7-percent increase in amount of sales and a 12.5-percent increase in net earnings.

It is estimated that at the end of 1939 there were 4,350 retail distributive associations operating stores, buying clubs, and gasoline stations, with 925,000 members and annual sales of \$211,653,000. Associations providing various kinds of service (rooms, medical care, burial, housing, electricity, etc.) had an estimated total of 914, with 576,450 members and a business of \$5,815,000. Credit unions numbered 8,315, with an estimated membership of 2,421,000 and loans granted during the year amounting to \$240,500,000. No data were available upon which to make computations regarding telephone or insurance associations. It was estimated by the Bureau<sup>2</sup> that at the end of 1936 there were 5,000 telephone associations with 330,000 members and gross income of \$5,485,000; also that insurance associations numbered 1,800 with 6,800,000 policyholders and \$103,375,000 gross premium income. It is doubtful that the telephone associations have shown much, if any, increase since 1936; the insurance associations have increased, but the Bureau has no data showing the measure of the increase.

Retail cooperatives have federated and established wholesale cooperatives through which to purchase their supplies. These whole-

<sup>1</sup> For more complete report, see Serial No. R. 1158. A general summary of developments in the consumers, cooperative movement was published in the Monthly Labor Review, March 1940 (also reprinted as Serial No. R. 1092).

<sup>2</sup> See Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 659.



sales the Bureau of Labor Statistics classifies, on the basis of territorial coverage, as district, regional, and interregional. The district organizations are those serving a group of associations in a well-defined area less than State-wide. The regional wholesales are those operating throughout one or more States. The interregional associations are federations of regional wholesales for the pooling of their purchasing power.

At the end of 1939 the 13 district wholesales were serving 160 retail members, and over 2,100 retail associations were members of the 22 reporting regional wholesales handling consumer goods. The two interregional associations had in membership 14 and 7 regional associations, respectively.

A combined business of nearly 52½ million dollars was shown by the reporting regional wholesales, which was an increase of slightly over 5 percent (for identical associations) as compared with the preceding year. These associations realized a net gain on their operations amounting to about \$1,200,000, or 42 percent above 1938. The district wholesales had sales amounting to \$1,751,273 (16.3 percent over 1938) and net earnings of \$102,272 (18.6 percent over 1938). The business of the two interregional organizations aggregated more than 2½ million dollars in 1939.

Out of their net earnings the regional wholesales returned to their member associations, on their business with the wholesales, over \$750,000. Including the patronage refunds made by the interregional and district organizations, altogether the retail associations which were members of wholesale federations benefited, on this one year's business, to the amount of nearly a million dollars.

In order to make further savings for their members and in some cases to overcome difficulties in obtaining supplies from private sources, some of the wholesales have undertaken certain productive or processing operations. One organization operates a bakery and coffee-roasting plant, another makes butter, slaughters animals for meat, and makes sausage. Several of the wholesales blend their own lubricating oil, and make grease, and several make commercial fertilizer, mix feeds, and operate seed cleaning and grading plants. The year 1939 witnessed a considerable expansion in these activities. Goods processed or manufactured by 8 associations in 1939 were valued at \$5,092,084.

Compilation of data on operations of regional wholesales handling consumer goods shows a remarkable expansion from 1929 to 1939. In 1939 the amount of business done was more than 7 times as great as in 1929, net earnings were more than 10 times as great, and patronage refunds more than 12 times as great.

Notwithstanding the depression, the volume of cooperative wholesale business rose without a break through 1937. In 1938 a slight decrease occurred, but 1939 sales more than overcame that decline.

Net earnings and patronage refunds showed a slight dip in 1933 but in the succeeding year that set-back was more than overcome and each succeeding year showed a higher level than before.

In the 11-year period, wholesales handling consumer goods did a business of nearly \$300,000,000 and returned to their members on their patronage almost 5½ million dollars.

### Retail Associations

In 1937 the Bureau of Labor Statistics made a general survey of consumers' cooperative associations of all kinds. Although the coverage was not complete, such a large proportion of associations reported that the Bureau felt justified, for the first time, in making estimates of total number of associations, membership, and business done. No general survey has been made since that time, but for each succeeding year the Bureau has obtained reports for a sufficiently large sample of associations to indicate the general trend. On the basis of the 1936 estimates and the later percentages of change shown by the reporting sample, the following table of estimates has been constructed. In using the percentages of change since 1936, however, it was recognized that the reporting sample consisted of better-than-average associations and therefore the percentages were lowered somewhat. Although there may be a considerable margin of error in either direction, it is felt that the estimates given are quite conservative.

TABLE 1.—Estimated Number, Membership, and Business of Consumers' Cooperatives, 1939

Type of association	Number of associations	Members	Amount of business
Retail distributive associations.....	4,350	925,000	\$211,653,000
Stores and buying clubs.....	2,900	450,000	120,053,000
Petroleum associations.....	1,400	450,000	86,000,000
Other distributive associations.....	50	25,000	5,600,000
Service associations.....	914	576,450	5,815,000
Associations providing rooms, meals, or both.....	100	22,000	1,600,000
Medical-care associations.....	50	20,000	500,000
Funeral associations.....	136	31,250	190,000
Housing associations.....	53	4,200	2,750,000
Electricity associations.....	575	485,000	( <sup>4</sup> )
Miscellaneous.....	100	14,000	775,000
Telephone associations <sup>1</sup> .....	5,000	330,000	5,485,000
Credit unions.....	8,315	2,421,000	240,500,000
Insurance associations <sup>2</sup> .....	1,800	6,800,000	103,375,000

<sup>1</sup> Actual figure; not an estimate.

<sup>2</sup> Gross income.

<sup>3</sup> Number of customers.

<sup>4</sup> Data not sufficient to warrant computation of an estimate.

<sup>5</sup> 1936; data not sufficient to warrant later computation.

<sup>6</sup> Amount of loans made.

<sup>7</sup> Policyholders.

<sup>8</sup> Gross premium income.

### Wholesale Associations

The North Pacific Cooperative Wholesale, Seattle, Wash., was created in 1936 to serve the self-help units throughout the State but was transformed into a consumers' organization in 1937. It never attained sufficient volume for successful operation and its affairs were wound up in November 1939.

At the end of 1939 there were at least 23 regional wholesale associations in the United States handling consumer goods<sup>3</sup> and doing business over an area of one or more States. Seven of these regional wholesales are banded into United Cooperatives, an interregional organization through which they make volume purchases of such items as petroleum products, automobile tires and accessories, and equipment for bulk and service stations. At the end of 1939, 12 of the regional wholesales<sup>4</sup> were affiliated with National Cooperatives, an organization which does no warehousing but negotiates contracts with manufacturers for volume orders of goods needed by all of its members.

In California there are two small organizations, one serving retail associations in the northern half of the State and the other those in the southern half. In Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin some of the retail associations in certain districts have organized associations to handle certain products which they do not wish to carry themselves. These district organizations are federations of associations, but generally sell directly to the associations' individual members, returning the patronage dividend, however, through the association to which the patron belongs.

#### MEMBERSHIP OF WHOLESALERS

The regional wholesale associations for which data were obtained represent the federation, for business purposes, of over 2,100 retail associations (table 2). Two wholesales had a decrease in number of affiliates in 1939, but the increase shown by the other associations was more than sufficient to overcome this loss. Omitting one wholesale for which data were obtained for the first time, the membership showed an increase of 5.6 percent over 1938.

Nonaffiliated local cooperatives also make use of the wholesale facilities. Thus, 15 regional wholesales reported a total of 1,121 nonmember associations that patronize the wholesale from time to time, and 11 nonmember patrons were reported by 5 district wholesales.

The combined membership of the district associations was 160 retail cooperatives. For the associations reporting for both years there was an increase of 11.5 percent. Generally, most of the retail associations which are members of the district wholesale are also members of the regional wholesale in their State, so that there is a great deal of duplication, in the membership figures shown in table 2, between the regional and district groups.

<sup>3</sup> There are many additional wholesale associations of farmers, which do not handle consumer goods and are therefore not included here.

<sup>4</sup> And 1 Canadian wholesale. Another Canadian wholesale was admitted early in 1940, as well as an additional wholesale in the United States.



TABLE 2.—Membership and Retail Branches of Cooperative Wholesale Associations, 1938 and 1939

Association and State	Year in which organized	Affiliated associations		Retail branches of wholesale	
		1939	1938	1939	1938
Interregional					
Illinois: National Cooperatives.....	1933	14	14		
Indiana: United Cooperatives.....	1930	7	8		
Total.....		21	22		
Regional					
Illinois:					
Illinois Farm Supply Co.....	1927	66	64		
The Cooperative Wholesale.....	1936	86	73		
Indiana: Indiana Farm Bureau Cooperative Association.....	1921	89	87		
Iowa: Cooperative Service Co.....	1935	21	19		
Massachusetts: United Cooperative Farmers.....	1927	11	11	2	3
Michigan: Farm Bureau Services.....	1920	130	114	12	15
Minnesota:					
Midland Cooperative Wholesale.....	1926	209	170		
Farmers Union Central Exchange.....	1927	250	245	2	6
Minnesota Farm Bureau Service Co.....	1928	28	30		
Missouri: Consumers Cooperative Association.....	1928	454	424	16	14
Nebraska:					
Farmers Union Cooperative Oil Association.....	1934	18	13		
Farmers Union State Exchange.....	1929	230	273	15	20
New York: Eastern Cooperative Wholesale.....	1929	117	93		
Ohio: Farm Bureau Cooperative Association.....	1933	84	81		
Oregon: Oregon Grange Wholesale.....	1937	16	13		
Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania Farm Bureau Cooperative Association.....	1934	15	14		
Texas: Consumers Cooperatives Associated.....	1931	54	52		
Utah: Utah Cooperative Association.....	1935	7	( <sup>1</sup> )		
Washington:					
Grange Cooperative Wholesale.....	1919	57	57		
Pacific Supply Cooperative.....	1933	81	74		
Wisconsin:					
Wisconsin Cooperative Farm Supply Co.....	1937	5	5		
Central Cooperative Wholesale.....	1917	125	121		
Total.....		2,153	2,033	47	58
District					
California:					
Associated Cooperatives of Northern California.....	1938	18	10		
Associated Cooperatives of Southern California.....	1939	18	( <sup>2</sup> )		
Illinois: Chicago Cooperative Union.....	1938	15	15	1	1
Michigan:					
H-O-B Cooperative Oil Association.....	1932	10	9		
Northland Cooperative Federation.....	1938	5	5	1	1
Minnesota:					
Trico Cooperative Oil Association.....	1929	17	15		
C-A-P Cooperative Oil Association.....	1929	10	10		
Range Cooperative Federation.....	1924	19	18		
Wisconsin:					
Fox River Valley Cooperative Wholesale.....	1936	23	21		
A & B Cooperative Association.....	1930	8	8		
Iron Cooperative Oil Association.....	1930	7	( <sup>2</sup> )		
Cooperative Services.....	1928	5	5		
Price County Cooperative Oil Association.....	1934	5	5		
Total.....		160	121	2	2

<sup>1</sup> And 12 independent associations managed under contract.<sup>2</sup> No data.<sup>3</sup> Estimated.

## BUSINESS OPERATIONS, 1938 AND 1939

A wholesale business of nearly 52½ million dollars was done in 1939 by the 22 regional cooperative wholesales handling consumer goods (table 3). This represented an increase of 5.2 percent over the previous year (for 20 associations reporting for both years). Fourteen

associations increased their sales from 1938 to 1939, while 6 suffered decreases. Nine of the regional associations had the largest sales in their history in 1939.

TABLE 3.—Business Operations of Cooperative Wholesale Associations, 1938 and 1939

Association and State	Amount of business <sup>1</sup>		Net earnings		Patronage refunds	
	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939	1938
<i>Interregional</i>						
Indiana: United Cooperatives.....	\$1,019,599	\$646,813	\$154,922	\$62,000	\$154,922	\$62,000
<i>Regional</i>						
Illinois:						
Illinois Farm Supply Co.....	8,750,259	8,512,954	( <sup>2</sup> )	385,084	( <sup>2</sup> )	347,813
The Cooperative Wholesale.....	187,468	149,080	885	38		
Indiana: Indiana Farm Bureau Cooperative Association.....	5,958,337	5,821,303	165,578	38,260	131,348	33,098
Iowa: Cooperative Service Co.....	45,255	42,926	<sup>3</sup> 18,945	<sup>3</sup> 15,620	14,495	14,341
Massachusetts: United Cooperative Farmers.....	<sup>4</sup> 846,172	<sup>4</sup> 873,704	15,593	8,469	15,593	8,469
Michigan: Farm Bureau Services.....	2,747,589	2,803,078	28,814	27,668	17,943	12,252
Minnesota:						
Midland Cooperative Wholesale.....	{ 3,760,150 <sup>5</sup> 239,963 }	3,610,592	61,316	84,701	38,140	65,757
Farmers Union Central Exchange.....	{ 5,057,384 <sup>5</sup> 96,316 }	{ 4,434,524 <sup>5</sup> 600,000 }	138,288	112,535	55,737	95,655
Minnesota Farm Bureau Service Co.....	448,586	453,256	6,776	2,805	6,000	621
Missouri: Consumers Cooperative Association.....	{ 4,188,117 <sup>5</sup> 237,060 }	{ 4,026,215 <sup>5</sup> 258,695 }	{ 108,596 3,439 }	87,331	78,536	66,219
Nebraska:						
Farmers Union Cooperative Oil Association.....	258,930	292,457	10,045	( <sup>2</sup> )	9,323	( <sup>2</sup> )
Farmers Union State Exchange.....	{ 1,517,648 <sup>5</sup> 955,078 }	{ 1,608,333 <sup>5</sup> 980,947 }	42,662	44,482	27,193	23,382
New York: Eastern Cooperative Wholesale.....	1,071,256	717,415	16,256	8,789	13,390	6,915
Ohio: Farm Bureau Cooperative Association.....	7,057,040	6,856,932	211,681	124,412	77,326	50,669
Oregon: Oregon Grange Wholesale.....	98,676	64,598	1,238	2,005	497	2,036
Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania Farm Bureau Cooperative Association.....	1,711,780	1,279,693	68,629	39,382	42,371	28,405
Texas: Consumers Cooperatives Associated.....	281,927	399,528	3,537	15,954	2,944	15,073
Utah: Utah Cooperative Association.....	196,806	( <sup>2</sup> )	1,216	( <sup>2</sup> )		( <sup>2</sup> )
Washington:						
Grange Cooperative Wholesale.....	2,051,986	2,027,000	57,521	12,000	57,521	12,000
Pacific Supply Cooperative.....	2,513,693	2,385,827	152,013	140,214	120,352	
Wisconsin:						
Wisconsin Cooperative Farm Supply Co.....	264,507	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )
Central Cooperative Wholesale.....	3,410,968	3,045,513	81,148	65,210	57,341	42,300
Total, all associations.....	{ 52,424,534 <sup>5</sup> 1,528,417 }	{ 49,404,928 <sup>5</sup> 1,839,642 }	{ 1,190,736 3,439 }	1,214,959	766,050	825,005
Total, associations reporting for both years.....	{ 51,963,221 <sup>5</sup> 1,288,454 }	{ 49,404,928 <sup>5</sup> 1,839,642 }	{ 1,179,475 }	829,875	636,378	477,192
<i>District</i>						
California:						
Associated Cooperatives of Northern California.....	11,219	33,000	( <sup>2</sup> )	350	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )
Associated Cooperatives of Southern California.....	3,936	( <sup>2</sup> )	240	( <sup>2</sup> )	81	( <sup>2</sup> )
Illinois: Chicago Cooperative Union.....	43,424	40,896	191	77	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )
Michigan:						
H-O-B Cooperative Oil Association.....	111,639	109,193	7,835	8,582	6,332	7,147
Northland Cooperative Federation.....	71,161	63,906	1,683	2,566	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )
Minnesota:						
Trico Cooperative Oil Association.....	232,912	234,390	27,534	25,851	24,481	22,684
C-A-P Cooperative Oil Association.....	( <sup>2</sup> )	126,852	15,483	13,166	( <sup>2</sup> )	11,755
Range Cooperative Federation.....	650,287	573,297	29,003	17,254	25,003	14,457
Wisconsin:						
Fox River Valley Cooperative Wholesale.....	312,351	139,895	( <sup>2</sup> )	7,578	( <sup>2</sup> )	7,364
A & B Cooperative Association.....	82,340	69,782	5,332	5,080	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )
Iron Cooperative Oil Association.....	58,207	46,286	2,892	2,898	1,109	( <sup>2</sup> )
Cooperative Services.....	135,054	139,652	9,849	7,151	<sup>5</sup> 5,591	5,300
Price County Cooperative Oil Association.....	38,743	51,976	2,230	3,409		2,000
Total, all associations.....	1,751,273	1,629,115	102,272	93,962	62,597	70,707
Total, associations reporting for both years.....	1,747,337	1,502,263	102,032	86,034	61,407	49,588

<sup>1</sup> Wholesale business, unless otherwise specified.

<sup>2</sup> No data.

<sup>3</sup> Includes commissions earned.

<sup>4</sup> Includes both wholesale and retail business.

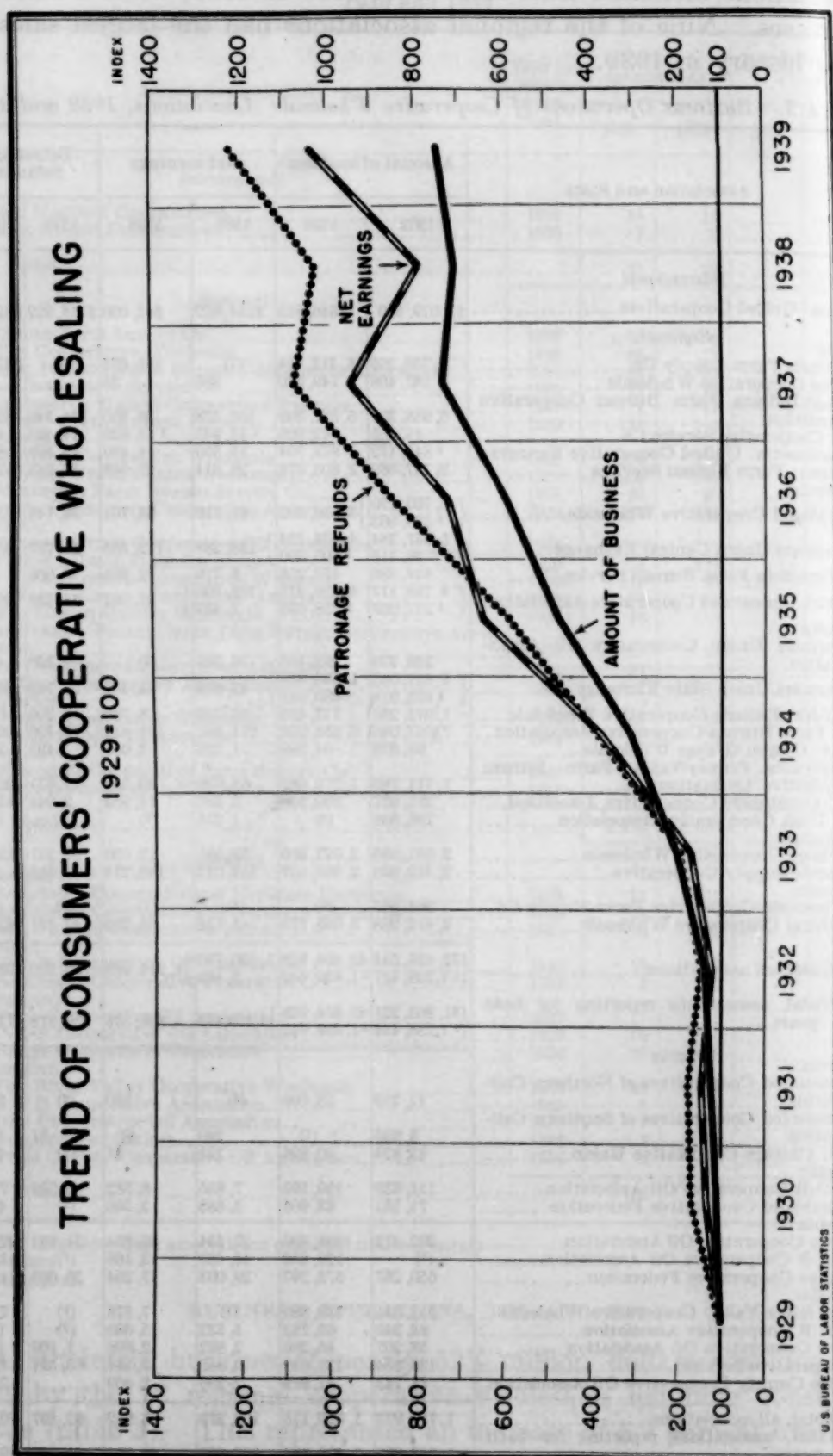
<sup>5</sup> Retail business.

<sup>6</sup> Refund of 2 percent; no data as to amount.

<sup>7</sup> Refund of 11 percent; no data as to amount.

<sup>8</sup> Refund of 3 percent; no data as to amount.

<sup>9</sup> Preliminary; subject to revision.





### *Trend of Consumers' Cooperative Wholesaling, 1929 to 1939*

Since 1929 the Bureau of Labor Statistics has been gathering data annually on the operations of cooperative wholesale associations handling consumer goods. On the basis of these figures, table 4 and the accompanying chart have been made, which show in graphic fashion the trend during the period 1929 to 1939. During this period, the number of wholesales handling consumer goods has nearly tripled, rising from 8 to 23. This does not mean that 15 new cooperative wholesales were established during the interval. Only 8 of the associations in operation at the end of 1939 were new associations; the others had entered the Bureau's tabulations at different times during the period, as they began to handle consumer goods. In 1929 fewer than 400 retail associations were members of consumers' cooperative wholesales; nearly 6 times as many were members in 1939. Sales were more than 7 times as great in 1939 as in 1929, net earnings more than 10 times as great, and patronage refunds more than 12 times as great.

TABLE 4.—*Development of Consumers' Cooperative Wholesaling in the United States, 1929 to 1939*<sup>1</sup>

Year	Num- ber of associ- ations	Num- ber of mem- ber associ- ations	Amount of business	Net earn- ings	Patronage refunds	Num- ber of associ- ations	Num- ber of mem- ber associ- ations	Amount of busi- ness	Net earnings	Pa- tron- age re- funds
	Amount					Index numbers (1929=100.0)				
1929.....	8	377	\$7, 023, 206	\$154, 882	\$92, 181	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0	100. 0
1930.....	8	475	7, 670, 589	203, 371	152, 960	100. 0	126. 0	109. 2	131. 3	165. 9
1931.....	11	666	8, 566, 946	223, 115	161, 714	137. 5	176. 7	122. 0	144. 1	175. 4
1932.....	11	850	9, 560, 630	190, 929	137, 019	137. 5	225. 4	136. 1	123. 3	148. 6
1933.....	13	1, 085	14, 238, 059	264, 906	178, 909	162. 5	287. 8	202. 7	171. 1	194. 1
1934.....	18	1, 463	21, 518, 414	582, 416	350, 695	225. 0	388. 0	306. 4	376. 2	380. 4
1935.....	20	1, 692	33, 277, 647	1, 002, 943	541, 625	250. 0	448. 7	473. 8	647. 9	587. 5
1936.....	21	1, 824	41, 370, 101	1, 123, 943	775, 773	262. 5	483. 7	589. 1	726. 0	841. 5
1937.....	23	1, 930	51, 868, 466	1, 467, 904	989, 184	287. 5	511. 8	738. 5	948. 2	1073. 0
1938.....	23	2, 081	49, 774, 982	1, 224, 559	947, 855	287. 5	551. 9	708. 7	791. 0	1028. 1
1939 <sup>2</sup> .....	23	2, 163	52, 472, 534	1, 600, 137	1, 122, 590	287. 5	573. 6	747. 1	1033. 6	1217. 6

<sup>1</sup> Figures partly estimated; data relate only to regional wholesales.

<sup>2</sup> Figures do not agree with those in table 4, for the reason that that table covered reporting associations only; in this table estimates are included on data lacking in that table.



### STATUS OF LABOR BANKS, JUNE 30, 1940

CONTINUING the upward trend shown since 1938, the labor banks showed increases in deposits, total resources, and net worth in 1939-40, as compared with 1938-39. The resources of the four banks totaled nearly 27 million dollars on June 3, 1940, or 4.3 percent above the same date of the previous year. The combined net worth (capital, surplus, and undivided profits) has shown an uninterrupted rise since 1934.

That the increased totals in 1939-40 were largely the result of gains made by the Amalgamated banks is shown when comparison is made of the figures for individual banks for 1938-39 and 1939-40. Thus the Union and Telegraphers' banks both showed gains in net worth but decreases in deposits and total resources. The Amalgamated banks both had gains in all three items, those in deposits and total resources being more than sufficient to offset the decreases of the other two banks. Data for each of the four banks, as of June 30, 1940, supplied to the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the Industrial Relations Section of Princeton University, are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Status of Individual Labor Banks, as of June 30, 1940*

Name and location of bank	Capital, surplus, and undivided profits	Deposits	Total resources
All banks.....	\$2,684,911	\$23,847,294	\$26,931,651
Amalgamated Trust & Savings Bank, Chicago, Ill.....	786,934	9,448,530	10,393,324
Union National Bank, Newark, N. J.....	474,183	3,035,006	3,533,792
Amalgamated Bank of New York, N. Y.....	704,652	7,150,670	8,032,754
Telegraphers' National Bank, St. Louis, Mo.....	719,141	4,213,089	4,971,781

Table 2 shows the trend of the labor banking movement since 1920.

TABLE 2.—*Development of Labor Banks in the United States, 1920 to 1940<sup>1</sup>*

Date	Number of banks	Capital, surplus, and undivided profits	Deposits	Total resources
Dec. 31—				
1920.....	2	\$1,154,446	\$2,258,561	\$3,628,867
1921.....	4	1,535,869	9,970,961	12,782,173
1922.....	10	2,793,162	21,901,641	26,506,723
1923.....	18	5,575,252	43,324,820	51,496,524
1924.....	26	8,333,024	72,913,180	85,325,884
1925 <sup>2</sup> .....	36	12,536,901	98,392,592	115,015,273
1926.....	35	12,751,885	108,743,550	126,533,542
1927.....	32	12,029,676	103,290,219	119,818,416
1928.....	27	11,358,705	98,784,369	116,307,256
June 30—				
1929.....	22	10,495,079	92,077,098	108,539,894
1930.....	14	7,217,836	59,817,392	68,953,855
1931.....	11	6,865,378	50,949,570	59,401,164
1932.....	7	3,443,396	22,662,514	28,564,797
1933 <sup>3</sup> .....	4	2,161,421	15,338,505	18,653,355
1934.....	4	2,038,433	15,899,849	19,168,718
1935.....	4	2,051,943	17,262,281	19,692,385
1936.....	4	2,155,221	20,302,297	22,858,772
1937.....	4	2,189,671	21,679,590	24,359,340
1938.....	4	2,503,899	21,013,099	23,785,086
1939.....	4	2,544,538	22,923,861	25,813,638
1940.....	4	2,684,911	23,847,294	26,931,651

<sup>1</sup> Data are from Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, Report on Labor Banking Movement in the United States, Princeton, 1929, p. 277, and additional new material furnished by the university to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

<sup>2</sup> Amalgamated Bank of Philadelphia not included.

<sup>3</sup> Dec. 31.

# Industrial Safety and Hygiene

## CAUSES AND PREVENTION OF ACCIDENTS IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY, 1939

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### Summary

IN 1939, as in 1938, construction accounted for a greater number of industrial injuries than any other industry. Estimates put the total number of injuries at 404,700, of which 3,600 resulted in death, 18,100 in permanent impairment, and the remainder in temporary disabilities. With one exception, the frequency of injuries per million employee-hours in construction has exceeded that of every other industry surveyed.

A study of the experience of 360 companies shows, for every million hours worked, an average of nearly 76 disabling injuries. Of every 100 employees, working on the average about 1,400 hours during the year, nearly 11 were injured.

Of the companies surveyed, 220 were engaged in building erection, 48 in heavy and railroad construction, and 92 in highway construction. The building-construction group, with nearly 15,000 workers, experienced the lowest injury frequency rate, with 68.53 injuries per million employee-hours. The highway-construction companies, with slightly over 8,000 employees, had a frequency rate of 74.34. The rate for heavy- and railroad-construction firms, with 7,000 employees, however, was 91.31, about one-third above that for building and nearly one-fourth above that for highway construction. In terms of the severity rate (i. e. the number of days lost per 1,000 hours worked), heavy and railroad construction again experienced the highest rate, 9.92. The severity rate for building construction, 7.03, however, exceeded that of highway construction, 6.38. The total time lost in all three groups was about 324,000 days.

Of every 1,000 injuries, 6 resulted in death and 43 in permanent impairment. The average time charge per permanent injury was 1,138 days, and the average duration per temporary injury, 18 days. There was little difference among the three types of construction in the death rate, with building as well as heavy and railroad construction averaging 6 per 1,000 injuries, and highway construction 5.



But there was considerable difference in the permanent disability distribution, with heavy and railroad construction leading with 56 such injuries out of every 1,000. However, the average time loss of these injuries, 957 days, was lower than that of either of the other groups. Building construction had 41 permanent impairments in every 1,000 disabling injuries, averaging a time loss of 1,225 days per injury. The corresponding figure for highway construction was 31 injuries but each injury had an average time loss of 1,340 days, which was the highest average in the 3 groups. On the other hand, the average time loss per temporary injury, 20 days, was highest in heavy and railroad construction, with building construction a close second with 19 days, and highway construction last with 16 days.

TABLE 1.—*Injury Rates in Three Branches of Construction, 1939*

Item	Type of construction			
	All types	Building	Heavy and railroad	Highway
Number of companies reporting.....	360	220	48	92
Frequency rate (average number of disabling injuries per million hours worked).....	75.83	68.53	91.31	74.34
Severity rate (average number of days lost per thousand hours worked).....	7.60	7.03	9.92	6.38
Disability distribution per thousand injuries, for—				
Death and permanent total disability.....	6	6	6	5
Permanent partial disability.....	43	41	56	31
Temporary total disability.....	951	953	938	964
Average time loss per disabling injury: <sup>1</sup>				
Permanent partial disability..... days.....	1,138	1,225	957	1,340
Temporary total disability..... do.....	18	19	20	16

<sup>1</sup> Each death or permanent total disability is charged with 6,000 days lost.

In sharp contrast with the injury experience of the companies in heavy construction is that of the Tennessee Valley Authority. For a total of nearly 24 million employee-hours worked, TVA employees had 366 disabling injuries. With more than twice the exposure, the number of disabling injuries was only about one-third as large as for the private companies surveyed. One very important reason for this difference is TVA's extensive safety program.

An analysis of individual company records indicated that in building construction the small companies, with 1 to 24 employees, and the largest, with 400 or more employees, had the lowest injury-frequency rates. The same was not true for heavy and railroad construction, in which small companies had a relatively high rate. The large firms had a much lower rate, second only to those with 25 to 49 employees. In highway construction, however, the largest companies had the worst and the smallest companies the best injury-frequency experience.

The individual company reports disclosed a variety of experiences. In each type of construction, some companies with large numbers of employees had fewer injuries than did small concerns. On the other hand, companies with about the same number of employees varied

widely in the number of injuries sustained. Furthermore, an analysis of individual accidents discloses that many of them could have been prevented by attention to fundamental safety precautions.

### *Injury Experience of the Industry*

#### ALL COMPANIES REPORTING

The 360 companies reporting their injury experience for 1939 consisted of 220 companies in building construction, 48 in heavy and railroad construction—practically all in heavy construction—and 92 in highway construction. Of the total of 29,861 employees, 14,657 were in building, 7,092 in heavy and railroad, and 8,112 in highway construction. The group as a whole had an exposure of nearly 43 million employee-hours, and experienced 3,235 disabling injuries, of which 16 resulted in death, 2 in permanent total disability, 140 in permanent impairments of one or more parts of the body, and 3,077 in temporary total disability. For the entire group surveyed, the frequency rate was 75.83 and the severity rate 7.60.

A considerable proportion of the reported injuries—716, or 22 percent—were not reported as connected with the accident types considered as most prevalent in construction, and in another 10 percent the injuries could not be classified specifically. Of the accident types listed, "struck by falling objects" recurred most frequently, in 14.6 percent of the total. The "stepping on or striking against objects" type of accident ranked second with 12.6 percent of all injuries, and strains third with 11.9 percent. Injuries caused by being "struck by moving objects" were 9.2 percent of the total, but motor vehicles were responsible for only 1.5 percent. Falls from elevations, with 8.5 percent of all injuries, were twice as frequent as falls on level surfaces, recorded in 4.3 percent. For the group as a whole, machinery accidents were infrequent, with only 2.3 percent of the injury total assigned to this accident type.

Eight of the 16 fatalities, and the 2 permanent total disabilities, were equally divided between the "struck by falling objects" and the "falls from elevations" types of accidents. The largest number of permanent impairments ascribed to any one accident type, 42, was due to being caught between objects, about half of which consisted of machinery. The accident type ranking second in number of permanent impairments was "struck by falling objects," with 31 cases.

#### BUILDING CONSTRUCTION

The 220 companies in this group employed during 1939 an average of 14,657 employees who worked a total of nearly 21 million hours and had 1,429 disabling injuries. Of these, 6 resulted in death, 2 in permanent total disability, and 59 in permanent impairment. The

time loss for the group amounted to nearly 147,000 days. For every million hours worked, there were nearly 69 disabling injuries.

As in the case of the entire construction group, the accident type "struck by falling objects" recurred more than any other. It was responsible for 14.5 percent of all injuries and about 20 percent of all permanent impairments. For every million hours worked, 10 workers were disabled by being "struck by falling objects."

"Stepping on or striking against objects" and "strains" each accounted for about the same proportion of injuries, 13.6 and 13.4 percent, respectively. These two types plus the "struck by falling objects" type accounted for nearly 42 percent of all reported injuries.

Falls from elevations, accounting for 11.4 percent of the injuries—more than twice the proportion of injuries caused by falls on a level surface—were responsible for exactly half of all fatalities and permanent total disabilities. Injuries caused by being struck by falling objects and being caught between objects accounted for about 40 percent of all permanent injuries, with the two accident types evenly divided.

#### HEAVY AND RAILROAD CONSTRUCTION

The 7,092 employees of the 48 reporting companies worked a total of nearly 11 million hours and had 994 disabling injuries. Six of these resulted in death and 56 in permanent impairments. The workers injured lost a total of 108,000 days. The frequency rate of 91.31, indicating slightly over 91 disabling injuries per million hours worked, was considerably in excess of the rates for the other two types of construction. Similarly, the severity rate of 9.92 exceeded the rates for the other two types.

Of the accident types specifically identified, "struck by falling objects" was most common. It was listed for 129 injuries, 2 of which resulted in death. The accident type "stepping on or striking against objects" was a close second with 106 injuries, nearly 11 percent of the total. Strains, with more than 9 percent of the total, ranked third in frequency. The two types of falls, combined, also resulted in more than 9 percent of all injuries, with falls from elevations considerably exceeding those on a level surface.

No single accident type stood out for injuries resulting in death, but being "caught between objects" caused about one-third of the reported permanent injuries. Half of these involved machinery. Another quarter of the permanent injuries was due to workers being struck by falling objects.

Again in sharp contrast with the experience in the private companies engaged in heavy construction was the accident record of the Tennessee Valley Authority. For an exposure of nearly 2½ million employee-hours, the construction activities on the Chickamauga Dam resulted in only 23 disabling injuries, or a frequency rate of 9.5—



one-tenth of the rate for the private establishments surveyed. For about 1 million hours spent on reservation clearance in connection with this dam, the frequency rate was 66.9, but even this rate was a considerable improvement over the 1938 rate of 160.1. Construction and maintenance activities, with nearly 2,365,000 employee-hours of exposure had a frequency rate of 19.9. The Guntersville dam project, with an exposure of 1,348,000 hours, had a frequency rate of 16.3, and the Hiawassee dam, with more than 2 million hours, a rate of 14.0.

### HIGHWAY CONSTRUCTION

The 8,112 employees of the 92 highway-construction companies worked a total of nearly 11 million hours and had 812 disabling injuries. The total time loss for these injuries amounted to nearly 70,000 days. The frequency rate for this experience is 74.34, and the severity rate 6.38.

"Struck by falling objects" injured more workers than any other accident type. Of the 135 workers so injured, 2 were killed and 4 permanently impaired. Moving objects caused 120 injuries, 30 of which involved motor vehicles and caused 1 death. "Stepping on and striking against objects" caused 108 injuries, and overexertion or improper working posture resulted in 103 strains. Of 85 falls, 51 were from elevations and the rest on level surfaces. Six of the 34 injuries caused by being caught between machinery resulted in permanent impairments, but none of the injuries resulted in death.

TABLE 2.—*Injury Rates, by Type of Accident, for 360 Construction Companies, 1939*

Type of accident	Number of injuries resulting in—			Total injuries		Total days lost		Injury rates	
	Death and permanent total disability <sup>1</sup>	Permanent partial disability	Temporary total disability	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Frequency	Severity
All construction (360 companies, 29,861 employees, 42,660,936 employee-hours worked)									
All types.....	(2) 18	140	3,077	3,235	100.0	324,269	100.0	75.83	7.60
Struck by falling objects.....	(1) 5	31	435	471	14.6	73,895	22.8	11.04	1.73
Struck by moving objects.....	3	16	279	298	9.2	42,450	13.1	6.99	1.00
Motor vehicles.....	3	4	43	50	1.5	24,198	7.5	1.17	.57
Other objects.....	0	12	236	248	7.7	18,252	5.6	5.81	.43
Falls on level surface.....	1	2	137	140	4.3	9,472	2.9	3.28	.22
Falls from elevation.....	(1) 5	17	252	274	8.5	73,555	22.7	6.42	1.72
Caught between.....	0	42	164	206	6.4	33,700	10.4	4.83	.79
Machinery.....	0	22	52	74	2.3	21,470	6.6	1.73	.50
Other objects.....	0	20	112	132	4.1	12,230	3.8	3.09	.29
Stepping on or striking against objects.....	0	7	402	409	12.6	16,436	5.1	9.59	.39
Strains.....	0	3	381	384	11.9	9,284	2.9	9.00	.22
All others.....	4	22	690	716	22.1	58,700	18.1	16.78	1.38
Unclassified.....	0	0	337	337	10.4	6,777	2.1	7.90	.16

TABLE 2.—*Injury Rates, by Type of Accident, for 360 Construction Companies, 1939—Continued*

Type of accident	Number of injuries resulting in—			Total injuries		Total days lost		Injury rates	
	Death and permanent total disability <sup>1</sup>	Permanent partial disability	Temporary total disability	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Frequency	Severity
<b>Building construction (220 companies, 14,657 employees, 20,852,298 employee-hours worked)</b>									
All types.....	(2) 8	59	1,362	1,429	100.0	146,646	100.0	68.53	7.03
Struck by falling objects.....	(1) 1	12	194	207	14.5	27,441	18.7	9.93	1.32
Struck by moving objects.....	0	6	104	110	7.7	14,585	9.9	5.28	.70
Motor vehicles.....	0	1	8	9	.6	4,170	2.8	.43	.20
Other objects.....	0	5	96	101	7.1	10,415	7.1	4.84	.50
Falls on level surface.....	0	1	74	75	5.2	2,139	1.5	3.60	.10
Falls from elevation.....	(1) 4	8	151	163	11.4	45,492	31.0	7.82	2.18
Caught between.....	0	12	45	57	4.0	6,231	4.2	2.73	.30
Machinery.....	0	7	11	18	1.3	4,196	2.9	.86	.20
Other objects.....	0	5	34	39	2.7	2,035	1.4	1.87	.10
Stepping on or striking against objects.....	0	4	191	195	13.6	11,265	7.7	9.35	.54
Strains.....	0	2	189	191	13.4	5,376	3.7	9.16	.26
All others.....	3	14	305	322	22.5	32,774	22.3	15.44	1.57
Unclassified.....	0	0	109	109	7.6	1,343	.9	5.23	.06
<b>Heavy and railroad construction (48 companies, 7,092 employees, 10,885,695 employee-hours worked)</b>									
All types.....	6	56	932	994	100.0	107,984	100.0	91.31	9.92
Struck by falling objects.....	2	15	112	129	13.0	26,879	24.9	11.85	2.47
Struck by moving objects.....	2	7	59	68	6.8	16,125	14.9	6.25	1.48
Motor vehicles.....	2	3	6	11	1.1	13,491	12.5	1.01	1.24
Other objects.....	0	4	53	57	5.7	2,634	2.4	5.24	.24
Falls on level surface.....	0	0	31	31	3.1	447	.4	2.85	.04
Falls from elevation.....	1	8	51	60	6.0	25,035	23.2	5.51	2.30
Caught between.....	0	18	58	76	7.6	11,399	10.6	6.98	1.05
Machinery.....	0	9	13	22	2.2	6,695	6.2	2.02	.62
Other objects.....	0	9	45	54	5.4	4,704	4.4	4.96	.43
Stepping on or striking against objects.....	0	1	105	106	10.7	1,936	1.8	9.74	.18
Strains.....	0	1	89	90	9.1	1,946	1.8	8.27	.18
All others.....	1	6	241	248	24.9	19,540	18.1	22.78	1.80
Unclassified.....	0	0	186	186	18.7	4,677	4.3	17.09	.43
<b>Highway construction (92 companies, 8,112 employees, 10,922,943 employee-hours worked)</b>									
All types.....	4	25	783	812	100.0	69,639	100.0	74.34	6.38
Struck by falling objects.....	2	4	129	135	16.6	19,575	28.1	12.36	1.79
Struck by moving objects.....	1	3	116	120	14.8	11,740	16.9	10.99	1.07
Motor vehicles.....	1	0	29	30	3.7	6,537	9.4	2.75	.60
Other objects.....	0	3	87	90	11.1	5,203	7.5	8.24	.48
Falls on level surface.....	1	1	32	34	4.2	6,886	9.9	3.11	.63
Falls from elevation.....	0	1	50	51	6.3	3,028	4.3	4.67	.28
Caught between.....	0	12	61	73	9.0	16,070	23.1	6.68	1.47
Machinery.....	0	6	28	34	4.2	10,579	15.2	3.11	.97
Other objects.....	0	6	33	39	4.8	5,491	7.9	3.57	.50
Stepping on or striking against objects.....	0	2	106	108	13.3	3,235	4.6	9.89	.30
Strains.....	0	0	103	103	12.7	1,962	2.8	9.43	.18
All others.....	0	2	144	146	18.0	6,386	9.2	13.37	.58
Unclassified.....	0	0	42	42	5.2	757	1.1	3.85	.07

<sup>1</sup> Figures in parentheses show the number of cases of permanent total disability included.

### Size of Company and Frequency of Injuries

The opinion that the small establishment presents a greater safety problem than the large establishment is widely held among safety engineers. This is predicated in part on the belief that the total

cost of industrial injuries, other things being equal, is a bigger item in a large establishment and therefore receives more attention, and in part on the theory that a large establishment can employ full-time safety personnel, whereas a small establishment cannot, because of the cost involved.

In table 3 are shown the frequency rates of companies grouped according to number of workers employed. In building construction, the smallest and the largest companies had the best frequency rates, with the 100 companies in the 1-24 employees group showing a slightly lower rate, 51.09, than the 5 largest companies each having 400 or more employees, with a rate of 51.32. The companies with 25 to 49 employees, had a slightly worse rate than the companies with 50 to 99 employees. The respective rates were 67.45 and 65.96. Both of these groups, however, had considerably lower rates than companies with 100 to 399 employees. Within this last group, the 22 companies with 100 to 199 employees each (averaging about 138) had about the same frequency rate, 78.47, as the 15 companies with 200 to 399 employees (averaging about 258) and a rate of 78.32. If the companies with 1 to 24 workers can be called small, those with 25 to 99 medium sized, those with 100 to 399 large, and those with 400 or more very large, then the survey of the 220 companies engaged in building construction indicates that the small and very large companies had the best records, and that the record of the medium-sized companies was better than that of the large companies.

In heavy and railroad construction, however, this was not the case. The 9 smallest companies, with 1 to 24 employees and averaging about 15, had a decidedly worse frequency record than companies with 200 or more workers. The frequency rate of this group of small companies, 128.94, was exceeded only by that of the 50 to 99 employees group, 148.43, and that of the 100 to 199 group, for which the rate, however, was nearly the same, 130.52. The rate of 69.60 for 12 companies with 25 to 49 workers each, seems to be out of line. Although the total number of companies involved was only 48, it seems that a rate of about 135 would have been more in keeping with the rest of the frequency rates according to size groups of employment. In general, however, it appears that in heavy and railroad construction the large companies had the best, and the medium-sized companies the worst, frequency records.

In highway construction, however, the situation was quite different. The smallest-sized group had the best and the single company with 856 employees the worst experience. The frequency rate, starting at 48.21 for the 1-24 worker group rose to 81.59 for the 50-99 group, dropped to 58.20 for the 100-199 worker group, and reached 81.64 for the 200-399 group. In general, for this type of construction,



the survey shows that the small companies had the best, and the large companies the worst, frequency records.

TABLE 3.—*Injury Experience of Construction Companies, Classified by Number of Employees, 1939*

Item	All com- panies	Companies with classified number of employees					
		1-24	25-49	50-99	100-199	200-399	400 and over
<b>Building construction:</b>							
Number of companies .....	220	100	49	29	22	15	5
Number of employees .....	14,657	1,153	1,778	1,935	3,036	3,877	2,878
Employee-hours worked (thousands) .....	20,852	1,429	2,461	3,002	4,499	5,682	3,780
Disabling injuries .....	1,429	73	166	198	353	445	194
Frequency rate .....	68.53	51.09	67.45	65.96	78.47	78.32	51.32
<b>Heavy and railroad construction:</b>							
Number of companies .....	48	9	12	11	4	8	4
Number of employees .....	7,092	138	436	806	605	2,102	3,005
Employee-hours worked (thousands) .....	10,886	209	560	1,152	613	3,564	4,787
Disabling injuries .....	994	27	39	171	80	311	366
Frequency rate .....	91.31	128.94	69.60	148.43	130.52	87.26	76.46
<b>Highway construction:</b>							
Number of companies .....	92	15	25	26	17	8	1
Number of employees .....	8,112	206	879	1,744	2,283	2,144	856
Employee-hours worked (thousands) .....	10,923	207	1,242	2,353	3,179	3,271	671
Disabling injuries .....	812	10	75	192	185	267	83
Frequency rate .....	74.34	48.21	60.37	81.59	58.20	81.64	123.71

The grouping of companies according to size of the working force obscures the fact that the injury experiences of individual companies varied widely. In building construction, for instance, one company with 150 employees had 49 disabling injuries, whereas another with the same number of workers had only 8 injuries. A company with 277 workers had 70 injuries, but a company with 455 workers had none.

In heavy and railroad construction and in highway construction the same wide variations were evident. A company with 65 employees in heavy construction had 79 injuries, or more than one for every worker. But another company, with 757 workers, had only 16 injuries, and one with 203 workers had only 6. Similarly, in highway construction, a company with 130 workers had 44 injuries, while one company with 132 workers had only 1. It is obvious that factors other than mere size of the company were involved, and it may be assumed that attention to accident prevention was one of them.

### *Distribution of Injuries*

That some companies have few or no injuries, while others have more than their proportionate share, is indicated by table 4. In building construction, about 40 percent of all injuries occurred within about 25 percent of the total employee-hours of exposure. Companies with nearly 9 percent of the total exposure had no injuries at all, and companies with 22 percent of exposure had only 11 percent of the total injuries.

In heavy and railroad construction, the exposure without injuries (1.3 percent) was negligible. On the whole, the percentage of exposure in any one injury group was closely matched by a similar percentage of injuries in the same group.

In highway construction, on the other hand, companies nearly 10 percent of the exposure hours had no disabling injuries, and 43.5 percent of the total exposure had only 23.5 percent of the total injuries. On the other hand, 19 percent of the total exposure accounted for about 38 percent of all injuries.

TABLE 4.—*Distribution of Disabling Injuries in Three Branches of Construction, 1939*

Number of injuries per company	Number of—			Cumulative				
	Com- pan- ies	Employ- ee-hours (thou- sands)	In- juries	Total			Percent of total	
				Com- pan- ies	Employ- ee-hours (thou- sands)	In- juries	Em- ploy- ee- hours	In- juries
Building construction:								
None.....	84	1,858	0	84	1,858	0	8.9	0.0
1-5.....	68	2,817	159	152	4,675	159	22.4	11.1
6-10.....	34	4,403	260	186	9,078	419	43.5	29.3
11-20.....	13	2,666	175	199	11,744	594	56.3	41.6
21-30.....	7	2,388	164	206	14,132	758	67.8	53.0
31-40.....	4	1,514	130	210	15,646	888	75.0	62.1
41 and over.....	10	5,206	541	220	20,852	1,429	100.0	100.0
Total.....	220	1 20,852	1,429					
Heavy and railroad construction:								
None.....	7	141	0	7	141	0	1.3	0.0
1-5.....	14	625	40	21	766	40	7.0	4.0
6-10.....	8	708	67	29	1,474	107	13.5	10.8
11-20.....	6	1,092	92	35	2,566	199	23.6	20.0
21-30.....	5	1,479	128	40	4,045	327	37.2	32.9
31-40.....	1	428	36	41	4,473	363	41.1	36.5
41 and over.....	7	6,412	631	48	10,885	994	100.0	100.0
Total.....	48	1 10,886	994					
Highway construction:								
None.....	24	1,082	0	24	1,082	0	9.9	0.0
1-5.....	31	2,203	83	55	3,285	83	30.1	10.2
6-10.....	13	1,463	108	68	4,748	191	43.5	23.5
11-20.....	14	2,428	190	82	7,176	381	65.7	46.9
21-30.....	5	1,650	119	87	8,826	500	80.8	61.6
31-40.....	0	0	0	87	8,826	500	80.8	61.6
41 and over.....	6	2,097	312	92	10,923	812	100.0	100.0
Total.....	92	10,923	812					

<sup>1</sup> Totals based on unrounded data.

### *Causes and Prevention of Disabling Accidents*

As in the earlier surveys of this industry, reporting companies were asked to describe their more serious accidents. As will be seen from the accident descriptions selected from these reports, most of them could have been prevented by the observance of elementary safety precautions. The lack of proper supervision and inspection and the absence of safety instructions are outstanding. The safety suggestions appended to the accident descriptions will be found, for the most part, in the Manual of Accident Prevention in Construction of the Associated General Contractors of America, Inc.

ACCIDENT CAUSES AND PREVENTION <sup>1</sup>*Building Construction*

1. While working on concrete forms on a second floor, a worker stepped into an open space, fell 12 feet, and sustained severe bruises and cuts.

*All openings should be guarded with rails.*

2. A worker suffered a serious back injury when a swinging scaffold broke. Too many workers were on the scaffold.

*Proper supervision would have prevented overloading the scaffold.*

3. A worker's eye was struck by a piece of steel from a mushroomed hammer head.

*Mushroomed tools should not be used.*

4. A load of piling on a derrick line hit and loosened a timber shore which slid to the subbasement floor and toppled over onto a worker, causing a permanent impairment to his shoulder.

*Guide lines should be used to steer loads. Swinging loads should be under control at all times.*

5. A worker, carrying lumber across a beam, slipped and fell. He was killed.

*Walkways should have been provided and used. If necessary to move lumber across beams, it should have been passed from worker to worker. It is dangerous enough to walk on beams, even without carrying lumber.*

6. A worker was riding the sling on a crane, and was killed when he fell 55 feet to ground.

*Men should never, under any circumstances, be permitted to ride loads or slings of cranes.*

7. A laborer attempted a short cut by walking across an open space on 2 x 10 joists. A joist tipped, and the worker fell about 12 feet, breaking the vertebra near the top of his spine. He was disabled for 5 months.

*Workers should be compelled to use regular walkways.*

8. An employee, engaged in putting up a building form, sustained broken ribs as well as bruises and lacerations when the form fell on him.

*When forms are in place, care should be taken to have them braced firmly.*

*When placing them, a sufficiently large number of men should be used to prevent forms from toppling over.*

9. A worker stepped on a flange of steel channel on the ground. The channel tipped and fell on his foot, causing a fracture.

*Walkways should be kept clear and workers should watch their step.*

10. A worker was sawing a board when a truck near him pulled out. One of the front wheels bruised his heel.

*The truck driver should not have started without making sure he was clear; nor should the injured have worked so close to the truck.*

*Heavy Construction*

1. The guard of a motor-driven saw flew off and fractured the operator's chin.

*To prevent injuries, guards should be securely fastened. Frequent inspections of equipment are desirable.*

<sup>1</sup> Acknowledgment is made of the assistance furnished in the determination of proper safety measures by W. A. Snow, safety director, Associated General Contractors of America. The analysis was made from cards to which the descriptions of accidents had been transcribed, so as not to reveal the identity of reporting establishments.



2. An unstably placed ladder, used to scale rocks in a tunnel, tipped and caused a worker to fall. His back was broken.

*Ladders should always have secure footing. The foot of a ladder should not be more than one-fourth its length from the vertical plane of its top support.*

3. It was necessary to amputate a finger of an operator of an acetylene welding torch because the worker waited until the burned finger became infected before reporting the injury.

*Workers should be required to report every injury promptly and should be furnished adequate first aid.*

4. A worker caught his hand in the gears of a hoisting drum, necessitating the amputation of a finger.

*The gears should have been guarded. Workers should not be permitted to oil, clean, adjust or repair equipment in motion.*

5. An inexperienced fireman turned on oil in a hot firebox without inserting the torch igniter. The resulting explosion caused burns to the face and eyes.

*Men should be properly trained before being permitted to operate equipment.*

*The oil should have been lighted as soon as it entered the firebox.*

6. A worker stepped from behind his truck and was struck by the rear wheels of another truck.

*The worker should have made sure he was in the clear before stepping from behind his truck.*

7. In trenching operations, a log fell from the top of a bank, causing serious injuries to the back and ribs of a worker.

*All loose materials should be kept at least 18 inches from the sides of trenches.*

8. Men were unloading pipe from a car on a trestle and throwing it to the ground 15 feet below. A worker, walking out from under the trestle, was struck on the head by a piece of pipe, suffering a skull fracture and permanent impairment to his sight and hearing.

*A guard should have been placed underneath the trestle to keep everyone away until unloading operations had been completed.*

9 After loading a 6-ton truck with crushed stone at quarry bins, a laborer rode on the running board of the truck toward a stack pile. He attempted to jump while the truck was still in motion. The straps of his oversized overalls caught on the dumping bar of the truck, throwing him under the rear wheels, which crushed him.

*No one should be permitted to board or leave trucks while in motion, nor should anyone be permitted to ride on the running boards of a vehicle. Workers should be cautioned not to wear loose clothing, which is a continuous hazard.*

10. A worker, excavating in a trench, disregarded a backache for several days until it became acute. A severe back strain had resulted.

*If the back strain had been reported in its early stages, medical aid could have been rendered and the man could have been taken off work or placed at lighter work until his regular job could have been resumed. All injuries, no matter how slight, should be reported promptly.*

#### Highway Construction

1. A worker's body and legs were badly broken when he was caught between a conveyor belt and the return roll of a conveyor. He was pulled into the conveyor by a stick with which he was cleaning the mud off the return roll.

*Workers should never be permitted to clean equipment in motion.*

2. A man drilling in a ditch line of a rock cut was crushed fatally by loose stone falling from the top of the cut.

*Proper inspection would have shown all loose stones and other loose or dangerous materials.*

3. The driver of a road oil-transport truck attempted to pass an old passenger car to which was attached a small, open trailer. The driver of the passenger car, an old man who was blind in the left eye, attempted a left turn without signaling. Both cars left the road and crashed into a retaining wall. The truck driver was killed.

*This accident apparently involved no unsafe act on the part of the truck driver, but illustrates a hazard to which he was exposed. It indicates the need for regulation by State laws of physically handicapped drivers.*

4. A worker, cleaning form lumber, stepped on a nail which penetrated into his foot.

*Workers should be required to wear strong, substantial shoes, especially when working around nails and other sharp objects.*

5. A piece of steel flew off the head of a mushroomed chisel which he was holding, and punctured the worker's chest.

*Workers should not be permitted to use tools with mushroomed heads.*

6. A man standing in a truck and unloading oiled gravel was thrown out of the truck when the truck driver started up suddenly. The injured worker was disabled for 4 months.

*The truck driver should not have put his vehicle into motion without first making sure that he could do so safely. He should also have given a signal to warn that he was about to start.*

7. A worker blowing out a steam line permitted the hose to fall, burning his foot. He did not report the burn until an infection had developed.

*All injuries, no matter how slight, should be reported promptly for first aid.*

8. While working at the bottom of a sewer wall, a worker who was placing concrete got some of it in his boots. He neglected to remove it. The rubbing caused his feet to swell, necessitating a week's absence from work.

*When wearing open-top boots at this type of operation, workers should pull their trouser legs over the boot tops.*

9. While lifting a large stone, a worker ruptured a biceps muscle.

*Workers should not be permitted to lift loads too heavy for them.*

10. Attempting to straighten the cable on the drum of a power shovel, a worker lost a finger when it was caught between the cable and the drum.

*Men should not be permitted to adjust equipment in motion.*



## ANTHRAX IN THE UNITED STATES, 1919 TO 1938

PERIODIC reports on anthrax incidence and fatality in this country have been made by a continuing committee of the American Public Health Association since 1919. A report to the annual convention of the association in October 1939<sup>1</sup> presented a re-analysis of the data included in previous reports, regrouping it into three comparable

<sup>1</sup> American Public Health Association. Committee on Anthrax. Sixth report. A Twenty-Year Survey of Anthrax in the United States, by Henry F. Smyth, M. D. Washington, National Institute of Health, Division of Industrial Hygiene, 1939.

5-year periods covering the years 1919 to 1933, and gave new figures on the last 5-year period—1934 to 1938.

In the effort to make the present report as accurate as possible, questionnaires were sent to all the State and Territorial health officers requesting for each reported case complete information covering occupation, infective material, source of material, location of lesion, treatment, and termination of case. As very few States were able to supply complete information, it was necessary in many instances to write to local health officers, physicians, hospitals, employers, and even patients themselves. The information received in reply to these letters was checked with previous reports and with records received by the United States Public Health Service. These inquiries revealed a surprising laxity in the reporting and recording of cases in some areas, and a complete lack of uniformity in collection of statistics regarding the disease throughout the country. Information more or less complete was supplied by approximately two-thirds of the States and Territories on either the first or subsequent requests. Because of the difficulties met in obtaining complete records, the report cannot be considered 100 percent accurate, but as all possible methods were used in securing the data, the committee believes the information can be considered as as fairly reliable. However, the figures given are regarded as minimum rather than maximum, as there are undoubtedly still many unrecorded cases in the country.

### *Incidence of Anthrax*

In the 20-year period there were 1,683 cases, with 353 deaths, reported. The number of States from which anthrax was reported increased in each 5-year period, rising from 25 States in 1919-23, to 37 States and 3 Territories (the latter being included for the first time) in 1934-38. Over the entire period, only four States (Alabama, Idaho, Nevada, and South Carolina) and the District of Columbia, Alaska, the Philippine Islands, and the Virgin Islands, did not report any cases. No cases have been reported from New Hampshire in the last 10 years, none from Maine and Rhode Island in the last 9 years, and none from Virginia and Kentucky in the last 5 years. Washington and South Dakota reported their first cases in 1931, West Virginia in 1934, Wyoming and Oklahoma in 1935, Iowa and North Dakota in 1937, and Utah in 1938.

The States reporting the largest number of cases of anthrax in the 20 years were Pennsylvania, 264; New York, 219; Massachusetts, 171; Texas, 154; New Jersey, 122; California, 106; and Louisiana, 93. In Mississippi no distinction is made in the records between animal and human anthrax, but it is said that that State would probably be at or near the top of the list as regards number of cases. The industrial States of Pennsylvania, New York, Massachusetts, and New Jer-



sey reported mostly tannery and wool anthrax, while the reports from Texas, California, Louisiana, and Mississippi were mainly of agricultural anthrax.

The following table shows the number of cases and deaths by 5-year periods, 1919 to 1938, and the percentage of fatalities.

TABLE 1.—*Number of Anthrax Cases and Number and Percent of Deaths, by 5-Year Periods, 1919 to 1938*

Years	Cases	Deaths	
		Number	Percent
1919-38.....	1,683	353	21.0
1919-23.....	461	107	23.2
1924-28.....	468	100	21.4
1929-33.....	379	85	22.4
1934-38.....	375	61	16.3

Fatality rates are still high, although the rate dropped from 22.4 percent in the third period to 16.3 in the last period. This was due almost entirely to a reduction in the number of cases in organized industries, in which earlier diagnosis and prompter treatment are provided and serum and arsenicals are more extensively employed.

### *Sources of Infection.*

Cases of tannery anthrax have fluctuated with economic conditions, as most of the cattle-hide tanneries are packer-controlled, and during a depression their raw material usually comes from healthy cattle slaughtered for food under Government supervision. In a period of prosperity, however, with greater demand for leathers, hides collected by traders throughout the country or on the ranges become a source of anthrax, particularly as they are handled in smaller and widely scattered tanneries, where there is less likelihood of prompt recognition and treatment of the disease. Goatskins, which come from many countries, have always been a source of the disease, but such tanneries, in which most of the cases of tannery anthrax reported for the last period occurred, usually have their own plant physicians and trained foremen who are on the watch for the slightest lesion, and most of the plants are located where adequate treatment can be given promptly.

The number of cases of wool anthrax showed a very decided increase in the second and third periods when, because of economic conditions, it might have been expected there would be a reduction. This increase is related to the establishment of a disinfecting station in Liverpool, England, in 1921, in which all wool which comes from anthrax infested regions must be disinfected. As a result of the added cost, to importers, of this disinfection a considerable amount of the wool from such regions has been diverted to the United States—an

argument, it is said, for the establishment of our own disinfecting station for wool and hair. Over 80 percent of the wool anthrax in this country occurs in the States of New York and Pennsylvania. The reduction in the number of cases and deaths in the last 5-year period may have been due in part to a decrease in imports from Egypt and Arabia and an increase in imports from South America (although this could not be verified, as detailed figures on imports were not available), and also to earlier diagnosis and more prompt and efficient treatment.

The number of cases in the hair and brush industries is hardly large enough to be interpreted, but has fluctuated with economic conditions, while the fatalities have definitely decreased. The figures for transportation, which includes longshoremen, truckers, etc., are also not large enough to be significant, but fatality rates have been high in every period among these laborers, probably because of failure to seek treatment in time.

The only other group with figures large enough to be significant is agricultural anthrax, which is contracted in many different ways from infected animals. The fatality rate for agricultural anthrax has fluctuated in the different periods, but has always been relatively higher than for industrial anthrax, largely because it occurs in areas where knowledge of the danger is not common and where skilled diagnosis and treatment are least available.

Table 2 shows the number of cases and deaths from anthrax, 1919 to 1938 and for 5-year periods, by source of infection.

TABLE 2.—*Number of Anthrax Cases and Deaths, 1919 to 1938, and by 5-Year Periods, by Source of Infection*

Source of infection	1919-38	1924-38		1919-23	1924-28		1929-33		1934-38	
	Cases	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
All sources.....	<sup>1</sup> 1,683	1,222	246	<sup>2</sup> 461	468	100	379	85	375	61
Hides and skins.....	415	283	29	132	106	13	84	10	93	6
Wool.....	191	183	17	8	69	8	76	8	38	1
Hair and brush industries..	79	49	9	30	24	6	12	2	13	1
Transportation.....	26	26	7	—	7	1	10	4	9	2
Agriculture.....	233	201	46	32	39	16	73	11	89	19
Professional <sup>3</sup> .....	20	20	1	—	6	1	8	—	6	—
Other industrial.....	33	33	9	—	15	5	10	—	8	4
Shaving brushes.....	69	24	13	45	12	6	6	4	6	3
Not reported.....	617	403	115	214	190	44	100	46	113	25

<sup>1</sup> Includes 353 deaths, source of infection not reported for 107 deaths occurring during period 1919-23.

<sup>2</sup> Includes 107 deaths, source of infection not reported.

<sup>3</sup> Includes veterinarians, laboratory workers, etc.

### Site of Lesion

In 640 cases in which the site of the lesion was reported, 629 were external and 11 were internal. The great majority of the external lesions were on the most exposed areas, with the face, head, and neck leading, the upper extremity almost as often involved, and with com-

paratively few lesions on the torso or on the lower extremity. Multiple lesions occurred in only 9 of the reported cases.

### *Results of Different Types of Treatment*

Operative treatment is on the decline. Of 499 cases, with 68 deaths, for which the treatment was reported between 1924 and 1938, only 36 cases were treated only by excision or incision and 11 of these resulted in death. In 312 cases treated with serum, there were 30 deaths; while in 27 cases treated with arsenicals there were no deaths. In 27 cases treated with serum and arsenicals there were no deaths; in 52 cases treated with serum and excision there were 2 deaths; the 1 case treated with arsenicals and excision recovered; and there were no deaths in 4 cases treated with serum, arsenicals, and excision. No death occurred in the reported cases when the arsenicals were used, but the number of cases in which this treatment was employed is not large enough to warrant a recommendation that the use of serum be discontinued. It is felt that either serum or the arsenicals should be used and possibly, with the present experience, both methods in combination.

### *Prevention of Anthrax*

In conclusion, the report states, it is evident there is still a decided need for prophylactic measures to be taken in the prevention of anthrax. If in the past 20 years hides and skins, which are the largest single cause of anthrax cases, had been properly sterilized, over 40 deaths and 10,000 days of lost time would have been prevented. As yet there is no accepted method of carrying out such sterilization, but the author of the report has for some time been attempting to obtain backing for a semicommercial-scale test of iodine disinfection which, it appears on the basis of repeated laboratory experiments, would be satisfactory. If the system of disinfection of wool which is followed in England had been used here, about 33 lives and over 5,000 lost days would have been saved.

Agricultural anthrax, which threatens to take first place over tannery anthrax, can be prevented only through the activities of the Federal Bureau of Animal Industry in seeing that the carcasses of animals dying of anthrax are disposed of properly, and of the State departments of agriculture in extending prophylactic inoculations of herds whenever cases of animal anthrax occur as well as of all herds in infected areas.

The employment of plant physicians trained in the diagnosis and treatment of anthrax is recommended for all industries in which potentially anthrax-infested materials are used, and the importance of the prompt and thorough treatment of all skin wounds, however trivial, in such industries, is emphasized.



# Labor Laws and Court Decisions

## COURT DECISIONS OF INTEREST TO LABOR

### *Night-Work Law for Women Upheld*

A STATUTE of Connecticut forbidding the employment of women in restaurants after 10 o'clock at night has been held valid as applied to female entertainers, notwithstanding their professional status. The State Supreme Court of Errors upheld the constitutionality of the act, even though its application to entertainers would result in the loss of employment and even though the nature of the work did not affect their health or the morals of restaurant patrons.

There was nothing in the statute to suggest an intent to except woman entertainers, the court ruled, and "if exceptions are to be made it is for the legislature to determine them and define their limitations." The act expressly prohibits night work by all women in restaurants, and the court held this to be a constitutional exercise of the police power of the State to protect the health and morality of women. Even the exception of hotels from the provisions of the statute was held not to constitute an unconstitutional discrimination, since the legislature might properly consider that night employment of women in certain capacities in hotels was necessary to perform proper service to the public. (*Doncourt v. Danaher*, 13 Atl. (2d) 868.)

### *Lessor of Store Held Employer Under Hours of Labor Law*

According to a decision of the Massachusetts Supreme Judicial Court, an employer-employee relationship exists whenever a company leases a store under certain circumstances. In this case a company continued to direct the operation of a store under a lease and the "lessor" was held to be an employer and therefore covered by the State law regulating the hours of labor of women.

In this State the law forbids the employment of women in certain places, including mercantile establishments, for more than 9 hours a day or 48 hours a week. The court held that the corporation had violated the statute by permitting the "lessee" to work for longer periods, since the relationship of employer and employee existed. The provision in the lease for the payment to the lessor of all sums received, except \$12 a week, indicated that the lessee was not pur-

suing her own business and enjoying the profits, but that she was working for the company and receiving wages. This conclusion was reached by the court because of a number of significant facts, including the power retained by the company to fix prices, to arrange special sales, and to control the method of record. Furthermore, the lease was terminable on a week's notice. (*Commonwealth v. Weinfield's*, 25 N. E. (2d) 198.)

### *Construction of Minimum-Wage Order for Beauty Shops*

An order fixing a minimum wage, under the minimum-wage law of the State of Washington, for operators in beauty parlors and similar establishments has been held by the State Supreme Court not to be applicable to an instructor in a beauty school. The court ruled that the school was not a "beauty shop" or such a "similar establishment" within the meaning of the order, although beauty treatments were given to customers by students at reduced rates.

In this case an instructor, who was also a licensed operator, sought to recover compensation which she claimed was due her, under the State minimum-wage law, for services performed at a beauty-culture school. The court, however, held that although she was qualified as an operator, she was employed not in that capacity but as an instructor, and hence could not recover compensation in accordance with the wage fixed in the order. (*McDonald v. Goddard*, 98 Pac. (2d) 1074.)

### *Picketing by Minority Union*

The Washington Supreme Court recently held that a minority union may not engage in peaceful picketing, where the employer has a closed-shop contract with a union which has been certified by the National Labor Relations Board as the sole collective-bargaining agency of the employees. The court ruled in this case that the picketing, although peaceful, was not lawful since it was an attempt on the part of the minority union to interfere with and do away with the closed-shop contract of the other union.

A lower court had restrained the union from picketing for the purpose of compelling the company to change its position on certain seniority grievances raised by members of the minority union. The State supreme court upheld this ruling on the ground that the action for injunctive relief did not involve a "labor dispute" under the State anti-injunction law, as the other union had been selected as the exclusive bargaining agent for all employees. It was also pointed out that a court may grant a temporary injunction in a proper case, even though the case may involve or grow out of a labor dispute. (*Bloedel Donovan Lumber Mills v. International Woodworkers of America*, 102 Pac. (2d) 270.)

### ***Lead Poisoning Held Accidental Injury***

Lead poisoning contracted by an employee as a result of unusual circumstances connected with his work has been held by the United States Circuit Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit to constitute an accidental injury within the coverage of an employer's liability insurance policy. The ruling was based on the ground that such poisoning had not previously occurred and was clearly the unexpected result of unusual working conditions, thus constituting an accidental injury rather than an occupational disease.

In this case the employee had been engaged in scraping lead sheathing from underground cables in unventilated manholes, and as a result of such work contracted lead poisoning. The facts showed that workmen pursuing the same occupation for 3 years under ordinary conditions without illness were made seriously ill when employed in unventilated manholes for less than 3 weeks. The only reasonable inference that could be drawn, the court said, was that the disease resulted from an injury accidentally suffered by the workmen.

In the course of its opinion, the court pointed out that the essential characteristics of an occupational disease are such that the disease should be the usual and necessary incident to the work done, or a gradual development under ordinary working conditions. In this case, however, the injury was unforeseen and could not be traceable to a definite time, place, or cause. The court therefore held that it was an accidental injury, as the disease was not the ordinary result of the employee's work and could not reasonably have been anticipated as a consequence of the employment. (*Florida Power & Light Co. v. United States Guarantee Co.*, 112 Fed. (2d) 385.)

### ***Employee Entitled to Damages for Occupational Disease***

According to a decision of the Federal District Court in Colorado, an employee has a right of action against his employer for an occupational disease contracted in the course of the employment and caused by the negligence of the employer, even though both employer and employee had accepted the provisions of the State workmen's compensation act. It was contended by the employer that such an action could not be brought because the workmen's compensation law excludes all causes of action for any injury whether or not compensable under the act.

In holding that the employee was entitled to maintain a suit for the occupational disease he had suffered, the court ruled that the Colorado Legislature, in enacting the workmen's compensation law, dealt solely with accidental injuries sustained by an employee in the course of his employment. As occupational diseases are excluded from the provisions of the workmen's compensation law, the employer of course pays



no premium for protection against that hazard, and the court declared that "to exempt him from liability therefor would tend to foster negligence of a kind likely to produce disease and render all regulation of working conditions, factories, etc., mere gestures." (*Cason v. American Brake Shoe & Foundry Co.*, 32 Fed. Sup. 680.)

### *Death of Employee from Pneumonia Held Compensable*

In a recent case the Court of Appeals of Ohio held that the death of an employee from pneumonia was compensable under the workmen's compensation law. In this case pneumonia had resulted when the deceased employee was compelled to go from a tank where the temperature registered from 110° to 120° to the outside where the temperature ranged from 69° to 88°. The employee's clothes were wet with perspiration and as a result of the sudden change in temperature he contracted pneumonia and died.

In holding that compensation should be granted, the court pointed out that the cause of the pneumonia and death was the internal injury resulting from the change of temperature that the employee was compelled to endure. It was, the court said, an unusual, sudden, and unexpected happening at a particular time which resulted in physical injury accidental in origin and cause. Compensation therefore was awarded. (*Johnson v. Industrial Commission*, 27 N. E. (2d) 418.)

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# Industrial Disputes

## TREND OF STRIKES

PRELIMINARY estimates on strikes in August 1940 show the usual seasonal upturn. There were 225 new strikes in which 52,000 workers were involved. This is a greater number than occurred in any of the preceding months of the year and represents an increase of 12½ per cent as compared with July. The number of workers involved was about the same as in July but the estimated number of man-days idle in August (615,000) represented an increase of 27 percent over the July figure and was higher, except for May, than in any preceding month of the year.

*Trend of Strikes, 1933 to August 1940*<sup>1</sup>

Year and month	Number of strikes					Workers involved in strikes		Man-days idle during month or year
	Continued from preceding month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ended in month	In effect at end of month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	
1933.....		1,695				1,168,272		16,872,128
1934.....		1,856				1,466,695		19,591,949
1935.....		2,014				1,117,213		15,456,337
1936.....		2,172				788,648		13,901,956
1937.....		4,740				1,860,621		28,424,857
1938.....		2,772				688,376		9,148,273
1939.....		2,613				1,170,962		17,812,219
<i>1939</i>								
January.....	120	203	323	184	139	51,159	72,427	513,460
February.....	139	204	343	204	139	68,252	88,267	553,138
March.....	139	210	349	199	150	43,337	64,660	618,147
April.....	150	281	431	255	176	396,166	425,748	4,902,238
May.....	176	258	434	272	162	95,239	457,407	3,547,868
June.....	162	245	407	269	138	62,534	127,474	958,127
July.....	138	251	389	216	173	175,542	211,548	1,168,382
August.....	173	275	448	272	176	79,670	118,772	1,101,419
September.....	176	197	373	222	151	36,846	103,538	892,485
October.....	151	205	356	217	139	106,628	139,608	1,508,120
November.....	139	178	317	201	116	43,239	130,341	1,664,574
December.....	116	106	222	128	94	12,350	37,122	384,261
<i>1940</i>								
January.....	94	116	210	118	92	25,156	39,503	239,170
February.....	2	148	240	136	104	28,421	36,787	282,445
March.....	104	150	254	160	94	21,736	42,125	376,753
April.....	94	198	292	184	108	36,603	49,880	429,866
May.....	108	197	305	219	86	49,930	73,966	648,147
June.....	86	168	254	158	96	34,673	51,949	459,000
July.....	96	200	296	181	115	52,000	66,000	485,000
August <sup>1</sup> .....	115	225	340	205	135	52,000	73,000	615,000

<sup>1</sup> Strikes involving fewer than 6 workers or lasting less than 1 day are not included in this table nor in the following tables. Notices or leads regarding strikes are obtained by the Bureau from more than 650 daily papers, labor papers, and trade journals, as well as from all Government labor boards. Letters are written to representatives of parties in the disputes asking for detailed and authentic information. Since answers to some of these letters have not yet been received, the figures given for the late months are not final. This is particularly true with regard to figures for the last 2 months, and these should be considered as preliminary estimates.

The largest strike of the month was that of painters in Greater New York City in which it is estimated that from 12,000 to 15,000 men were involved. The strike began August 26 and was still in effect at the end of the month.

As compared with August a year ago, strike activity in August 1940 was at a comparatively low level with only 82 percent as many strikes, 65 percent as many workers involved, and 56 percent as many man-days of idleness.

The figures given in the foregoing table for July and August 1940 are only preliminary estimates, based principally on newspaper information. An analysis of strikes in each of these months, based on detailed and verified information, will appear in subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review.



### STRIKES IN JUNE 1940<sup>1</sup>

THERE were fewer strikes beginning in June than in the two preceding months, but slightly more than in the earlier months of the year. The Bureau has received detailed information on 168 strikes which began in June, involving over 34,000 workers, and these, together with 86 strikes which continued into June from preceding months, caused 459,000 man-days of idleness during the month.

There were no extremely large strikes during June, none which involved as many as 5,000 workers. The two largest during the month involved bituminous-coal miners in western Pennsylvania and employees of motor-trucking companies in the Albany (N. Y.) area. The first lasted only 2 days and the latter about a week.

The industry groups having the largest number of strikes in June were: Building and construction (25), trade (19), transportation and communication (16), and lumber and allied products (15). The transportation and communication industry had more workers involved than any other group, caused mainly by the strike of truck drivers in and around Albany, N. Y., and also by a strike of truck drivers in Oakland, Calif., and vicinity, which lasted from June 5 to July 3. Other industry groups in which comparatively large numbers of workers were involved were: Extraction of minerals (4,705), textiles (3,542), and lumber (3,427). The greatest number of man-days of idleness were in transportation and communication (74,217), machinery manufacturing (68,745), and lumber and allied products (59,557).

<sup>1</sup> Detailed information on a few strikes has not yet been received. (See footnote to preceding table.) Data on missing strikes will be included in the annual report.



TABLE 1.—*Strikes in June 1940, by Industry*

Industry	Beginning in June		In progress during June		Man-days idle during June
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All industries.....	168	34, 673	254	51, 949	459, 000
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	11	1, 862	15	2, 982	26, 038
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	1	155	1	155	1, 395
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	2	180	2	180	2, 835
Forgings, iron and steel.....	1	20	1	20	40
Plumbers' supplies and fixtures.....	1	377	1	377	7, 540
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	1	192	1	192	3, 840
Stoves.....	1	518	1	518	1, 554
Structural and ornamental metal work.....	3	295	3	295	2, 711
Tin cans and other tinware.....			1	214	214
Wire and wire products.....	1	125	1	125	375
Other.....			3	906	5, 534
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	9	3, 128	17	7, 035	68, 745
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies.....	4	1, 758	5	1, 770	12, 084
Foundry and machine-shop products.....	2	1, 137	8	4, 712	50, 929
Radios and phonographs.....			1	320	3, 200
Other.....	3	233	3	233	2, 532
Transportation equipment.....	2	152	5	941	12, 950
Automobiles, bodies and parts.....	2	152	4	775	12, 784
Shipbuilding.....			1	166	166
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	8	2, 242	13	2, 736	37, 711
Aluminum manufacturing.....	1		1	6	126
Brass, bronze, and copper products.....	1	120	1	120	120
Lighting equipment.....	2	159	2	159	1, 694
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc.....	1	854	2	998	15, 356
Stamped and enameled ware.....	1	797	4	1, 138	17, 659
Other.....	3	312	3	312	2, 756
Lumber and allied products.....	15	3, 427	20	4, 602	59, 557
Furniture.....	4	451	7	758	10, 361
Millwork and planing.....	6	1, 115	6	1, 115	6, 217
Sawmills and logging camps.....	3	1, 683	4	1, 830	36, 033
Other.....	2	178	3	899	6, 946
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	4	616	6	782	10, 925
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	1	265	2	297	7, 000
Pottery.....	1	226	2	340	2, 940
Other.....	2	125	2	125	985
Textiles and their products.....	10	3, 542	18	5, 386	30, 568
Fabrics:					
Cotton goods.....	5	2, 990	6	3, 312	8, 103
Dyeing and finishing textiles.....	2	110	2	110	1, 330
Woolen and worsted goods.....	1	134	1	134	536
Other.....			1	215	1, 285
Wearing apparel:					
Clothing, men's.....			1	166	3, 320
Clothing, women's.....	1	28	1	28	560
Hats, caps and millinery.....	1	280	4	985	8, 314
Hosiery.....			2	436	7, 120
Leather and its manufactures.....			3	183	1, 659
Leather.....			1	50	1, 000
Other leather goods.....			2	133	659
Food and kindred products.....	14	1, 665	20	2, 108	9, 042
Baking.....	8	961	8	991	2, 367
Beverages.....			1	7	21
Canning and preserving.....	4	628	5	782	4, 224
Confectionery.....	1	26	2	119	461
Slaughtering and meat packing.....			2	173	1, 589
Other.....	1	20	2	36	380
Tobacco manufactures.....	1	9	2	2, 099	6, 018
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff.....	1	9	1	9	18
Cigars.....			1	2, 000	6, 000
Paper and printing.....	7	2, 079	10	2, 245	18, 025
Boxes, paper.....	2	43	3	113	511
Paper and pulp.....	2	967	3	1, 048	9, 592
Printing and publishing—					
Book and job.....	1	115	2	130	415
Newspapers and periodicals.....	1	929	1	929	7, 432
Other.....	1	25	1	25	75

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in June 1940 by Industry—Continued*

Industry	Beginning in June		In progress during June		Man-days idle during June
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
<b>Chemicals and allied products</b> .....			1	600	7, 900
Other.....			1	600	7, 200
<b>Rubber products</b> .....			1	1, 237	21, 029
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....			1	1, 237	21, 029
<b>Miscellaneous manufacturing</b> .....	6	377	11	815	12, 221
Furriers and fur factories.....	1	8	3	39	106
Other.....	5	369	8	776	12, 113
<b>Extraction of minerals</b> .....	3	4, 705	3	4, 705	5, 853
Coal mining, anthracite.....	1	1, 072	1	1, 072	1, 072
Coal mining, bituminous.....	2	3, 633	2	3, 633	4, 781
<b>Transportation and communication</b> .....	16	5, 634	22	6, 686	74, 217
Water transportation.....	3	650	3	650	928
Motortruck transportation.....	5	3, 521	7	3, 583	34, 692
Motorbus transportation.....	3	184	4	849	15, 643
Taxicabs and miscellaneous.....	4	632	6	935	17, 380
Telephone and telegraph.....	1	647	2	669	5, 574
<b>Trade</b> .....	19	872	32	1, 445	12, 492
Wholesale.....	8	534	16	725	6, 179
Retail.....	11	338	16	720	6, 313
<b>Domestic and personal service</b> .....	11	1, 007	16	1, 103	4, 182
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses.....	3	115	6	159	701
Laundries.....	5	813	6	835	2, 762
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing.....	1	29	2	59	525
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry).....	2	50	2	50	194
<b>Professional service</b> .....	4	116	6	188	2, 268
Recreation and amusement.....	4	116	6	188	2, 268
<b>Building and construction</b> .....	25	3, 094	27	3, 152	21, 527
Buildings, exclusive of PWA.....	23	2, 688	23	2, 688	16, 049
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and PWA buildings).....	2	406	4	464	5, 478
<b>Agriculture and fishing</b> .....	1	62	2	910	15, 636
Agriculture.....	1	62	1	62	372
Fishing.....			1	848	15, 264
<b>Other nonmanufacturing industries</b> .....	2	84	4	119	1, 137

Forty percent of the strikes beginning in June were in four States—New York (21), Pennsylvania (17), California (16), and Illinois (13). Pennsylvania had the largest number of workers involved, principally because of two strikes of coal miners, one involving several bituminous-coal mines in the western part of the State while the other was in the anthracite region. Both were of short duration, lasting only one or two days. The greatest number of man-days of idleness were in Ohio (59,212), and Illinois (44,816). Four strikes during the month extended across State lines. The largest of these was the tie-up of motor-truck operations in the Albany (N. Y.) area, which extended into Massachusetts.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in June 1940, by States*

State	Beginning in June		In progress during June		Mandays idle during June
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All States.....	168	34,673	254	51,949	459,000
Alabama.....	3	102	3	102	871
Arkansas.....	1	1,508	3	1,679	35,777
California.....	16	2,549	25	3,437	34,687
Colorado.....	1	45	1	45	675
Connecticut.....	1	128	2	594	5,894
Delaware.....	1	6	2	158	1,386
Florida.....	2	603	2	603	4,373
Georgia.....	1	50	3	241	3,760
Illinois.....	13	4,278	15	4,295	44,816
Indiana.....	5	170	11	897	13,724
Iowa.....	2	159	2	159	561
Kansas.....	1	99	1	99	891
Kentucky.....	1	107	2	251	1,934
Louisiana.....	2	87	2	87	99
Maryland.....			2	180	3,670
Massachusetts.....	6	1,239	9	2,191	19,084
Michigan.....	8	1,385	10	1,790	12,887
Minnesota.....	5	410	6	575	5,675
Missouri.....	5	1,712	8	1,853	16,464
Nebraska.....	1	9	1	9	18
New Jersey.....	11	879	16	1,393	24,834
New Mexico.....	1	143	1	143	572
New York.....	21	3,922	37	4,936	31,378
North Carolina.....	1	20	3	430	6,600
Ohio.....	12	2,298	18	4,948	59,212
Oklahoma.....	2	59	3	68	782
Oregon.....	2	58	3	205	3,286
Pennsylvania.....	17	5,444	20	5,637	13,389
Rhode Island.....	1	38	1	38	38
South Carolina.....	3	2,900	3	2,900	4,875
Tennessee.....	2	64	2	64	1,072
Texas.....	3	51	5	359	8,183
Virginia.....			3	2,607	13,221
Washington.....	4	195	11	3,452	35,434
West Virginia.....	3	472	4	488	2,249
Wisconsin.....	6	401	8	567	7,081
Interstate.....	4	3,083	6	4,469	39,548

About 65 percent of the strikes beginning in June involved fewer than 100 workers each, 29 percent involved between 100 and 1,000 workers, and only 6 percent involved as many as 1,000 workers. There were no strikes in which as many as 5,000 workers were involved. The average number of workers involved in the 168 strikes beginning in June was 206.



TABLE 3.—*Strikes Beginning in June 1940, Classified by Number of Workers Involved*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—				
		6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000
All industries.....	168	41	68	37	12	10
<i>Manufacturing</i>						
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	11		4	6	1	
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	9		4	3		2
Transportation equipment.....	2		1	1		
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	8	2	1	3	2	
Lumber and allied products.....	15	1	8	4	1	1
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	4		2	2		
Textiles and their products.....	10	1	3	3	1	2
Food and kindred products.....	14	3	9	1	1	
Tobacco manufactures.....	1	1				
Paper and printing.....	7	1	2	2	2	
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	6	3	2	1		
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>						
Extraction of minerals.....	3			1		2
Transportation and communication.....	16	4	5	2	3	2
Trade.....	19	10	7	2		
Domestic and personal service.....	11	5	4	1	1	
Professional service.....	4	2	2			
Building and construction.....	25	8	11	5		1
Agriculture and fishing.....	1		1			
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	2		2			

About 45 percent of the 168 strikes beginning in June were over union-organization issues principally, as compared with 41 percent in which the major issues were wages and hours—mostly demands for wage increases. The union-organization disputes included only 33 percent of the total workers involved, however, as compared with 37 percent in the wage and hour strikes. About 14 percent of the strikes, including 30 percent of the total workers involved, were due to miscellaneous causes including union rivalry, jurisdiction, sympathy, and specific grievances over such matters as seniority rules, delayed pay, and objections to certain supervisors or working conditions. The largest in the latter group was the strike of coal miners in western Pennsylvania, due principally to a dispute over seniority rights of men being laid off.

TABLE 4.—Major Issues Involved in Strikes Beginning in June 1940

Major issue	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues.....	168	100.0	34,673	100.0
Wages and hours.....	69	41.1	12,937	37.3
Wage increase.....	53	31.5	7,748	22.3
Wage decrease.....	4	2.4	1,755	5.1
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	7	4.2	1,259	3.6
Hour increase.....	1	.6	31	.1
Hour decrease.....	4	2.4	2,144	6.2
Union organization.....	75	44.6	11,200	32.6
Recognition.....	7	4.2	177	.5
Recognition and wages.....	16	9.5	3,278	9.5
Recognition and hours.....	3	1.7	182	.5
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	18	10.7	1,250	3.6
Closed or union shop.....	18	10.7	2,681	7.7
Discrimination.....	7	4.2	713	2.1
Strengthening bargaining position.....	5	3.0	2,971	8.6
Other.....	1	.6	38	.1
Miscellaneous.....	24	14.3	10,446	30.1
Sympathy.....	1	.6	28	.1
Rival unions or factions.....	5	3.0	1,079	3.1
Jurisdiction.....	2	1.2	170	.5
Other.....	16	9.5	9,169	26.4

The average duration of the 158 strikes ending in June was 18 days. About 39 percent of the strikes ended less than a week after they began, 44 percent lasted from a week up to a month and 15 percent lasted from 1 up to 3 months. Four of the strikes had been in progress 3 months or more. The largest of these was a strike of fishermen in the Boston (Mass.) area which began on March 15 and was settled on June 21.

TABLE 5.—Duration of Strikes Ending in June 1940

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes with duration of—					
		Less than 1 week	1 week and less than 1 month	1½ and less than 1 month	1 and less than 2 months	2 and less than 3 months	3 months or more
All industries.....	158	61	35	34	18	6	4
<i>Manufacturing</i>							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	9	4	2	2	1		
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	9	2	1	2	4		
Transportation equipment.....	2		1	1			
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	6	2	1		3		
Lumber and allied products.....	8	2	5			1	
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	2		1		1		
Textiles and their products.....	11	6	1	3			1
Leather and its manufactures.....	2		1			1	
Food and kindred products.....	13	7	2	3	1		
Tobacco manufactures.....	2	1			1		
Paper and printing.....	7	2	3	1			1
Rubber products.....	1					1	
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	5	2			3		
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>							
Extraction of minerals.....	2	2					
Transportation and communication.....	12	5	3	3	1		
Trade.....	25	6	5	10	2	1	1
Domestic and personal service.....	14	8	1	4		1	
Professional service.....	2	1			1		
Building and construction.....	24	11	7	5		1	
Agriculture and fishing.....	1						1
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	1		1				

Government officials or boards assisted in the settlement of about 53 percent of the strikes ending in June, including about 64 percent of all workers involved in strikes. About 34 percent, including 28 percent of the workers, were settled through negotiations directly between the employers and representatives of organized workers, and 10 percent were terminated without formal settlement. In most of the latter cases the strikes came to an end when the workers returned to work without settlement of the disputed issues or when the employers filled their places with new workers, moved to another locality, or went out of business.

TABLE 6.—*Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in June 1940*

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	158	100.0	34,243	100.0
Employers and workers directly.....	2	1.3	175	.5
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly.....	54	34.2	9,616	28.1
Government officials or boards.....	83	52.5	21,707	63.4
Private conciliators or arbitrators.....	3	1.9	783	2.3
Terminated without formal settlement.....	16	10.1	1,962	5.7

Almost half (49 percent) of the strikes ending in June resulted in substantial gains to the workers. These strikes included about 31 percent of the workers. Compromise settlements were obtained in 32 percent of the strikes, including about 57 percent of the workers and in about 13 percent of the strikes the workers (7 percent of the total) made little or no gains.

TABLE 7.—*Results of Strikes Ending in June 1940*

Result	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	158	100.0	34,243	100.0
Substantial gains to workers.....	77	48.7	10,755	31.4
Partial gains or compromises.....	51	32.3	19,356	56.5
Little or no gains to workers.....	21	13.3	2,459	7.2
Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements.....	9	5.7	1,673	4.9

The wage and hour disputes were a little more successful from the workers' point of view than those over union-organization matters. In the first group about 57 percent were substantially won, 40 percent were compromised and in 3 percent little or no gains were made. In the union-organization disputes, about 47 percent were won, 30 percent were compromised and in 23 percent little or no gains were made.



Of the workers involved in strikes over wage and hour issues, one-third won their demands, about 66 percent obtained compromise settlements, and less than 1 percent gained little or nothing. In the union-organization disputes, 40 percent of the workers were successful, 35 percent obtained compromise settlements and 25 percent made little or no gains.

TABLE 8.—Results of Strikes Ending in June 1940, in Relation to Major Issues Involved

Major issue	Total	Strikes resulting in—			
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction rival union, or faction settlements
Number of strikes					
All issues.....	158	77	51	21	9
Wages and hours.....	60	34	24	2	—
Wage increase.....	46	26	18	2	—
Wage decrease.....	4	2	2	—	—
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	6	3	3	—	—
Wage decrease, hour increase.....	1	1	—	—	—
Hour decrease.....	3	2	1	—	—
Union organization.....	73	34	22	17	—
Recognition.....	9	3	2	4	—
Recognition and wages.....	24	12	8	4	—
Recognition and hours.....	1	—	1	—	—
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	10	7	2	1	—
Closed or union shop.....	18	8	7	3	—
Discrimination.....	9	3	2	4	—
Strengthening bargaining position.....	1	—	—	1	—
Other.....	1	1	—	—	—
Miscellaneous.....	25	9	5	2	9
Sympathy.....	1	—	—	1	—
Rival unions or factions.....	7	—	—	—	7
Jurisdiction.....	2	—	—	—	2
Other.....	15	9	5	1	—
Number of workers involved					
All issues.....	34,243	10,755	19,356	2,459	1,673
Wages and hours.....	13,993	4,665	9,262	66	—
Wage increase.....	7,747	2,264	5,417	66	—
Wage decrease.....	1,772	1,015	757	—	—
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	1,101	113	988	—	—
Wage decrease, hour increase.....	1,237	1,237	—	—	—
Hour decrease.....	2,136	36	2,100	—	—
Union organization.....	9,415	3,769	3,302	2,344	—
Recognition.....	572	180	89	303	—
Recognition and wages.....	3,249	2,434	648	167	—
Recognition and hours.....	11	—	11	—	—
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	778	635	119	24	—
Closed or union shop.....	2,983	349	1,849	785	—
Discrimination.....	855	133	586	136	—
Strengthening bargaining position.....	929	—	—	929	—
Other.....	38	38	—	—	—
Miscellaneous.....	10,835	2,321	6,792	49	1,673
Sympathy.....	28	—	—	28	—
Rival unions or factions.....	1,503	—	—	—	1,503
Jurisdiction.....	170	—	—	—	170
Other.....	9,134	2,321	6,792	21	—

## ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, AUGUST 1940

THE United States Conciliation Service in August disposed of 413 situations involving 165,881 workers. The services of this agency were requested by the employees, employers, and other interested parties. Of these situations, 274 were strikes, threatened strikes, lock-outs, and controversies, involving 149,192 workers. The remaining situations, involving 16,689 workers, were services rendered such as filling requests for information, adjusting complaints, consulting with labor and management, etc.

The facilities of the Service were used in 28 major industrial fields, such as building trades, and the manufacture of foods, iron and steel, textiles, etc. (table 1), and were utilized by employees and employers in 40 States, Alaska, and the District of Columbia (table 2).

TABLE 1.—Situations disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, August 1940, by Industries

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved
All industries.....	274	149,192	139	16,689	413	165,881
Agriculture.....	1	8	1	1	2	9
Automobile.....	13	39,141	4	14	17	39,155
Building trades.....	15	9,687	10	28	25	9,715
Chemicals.....	2	156	3	4	5	160
Communications.....	1	7	1	1	2	8
Domestic and personal.....	23	841	8	60	31	901
Electrical equipment.....	1	112	1	1	2	113
Food.....	36	12,402	6	561	42	12,963
Furniture.....	12	3,029	1	83	13	3,112
Iron and steel.....	41	20,804	10	248	51	21,052
Leather.....	4	2,041	2	80	6	2,121
Lumber.....	11	4,341	2	105	13	4,446
Machinery.....	18	6,690	6	222	24	6,912
Maritime.....	2	5,020	9	6,931	11	11,951
Mining.....	8	3,870	2	501	10	4,371
Motion pictures.....	1	12			1	12
Nonferrous metals.....	5	18,786	2	500	7	19,286
Paper.....	4	1,636			4	1,636
Petroleum.....	1	21	3	94	4	115
Printing.....	3	123	6	26	9	149
Professional.....	2	130			2	130
Rubber.....	4	449	1	1	5	450
Stone, clay, and glass.....	13	2,282	5	94	18	2,376
Textile.....	13	5,188	10	6,116	23	11,304
Tobacco.....	3	3,297	1	1	4	3,298
Trade.....	19	1,046	10	21	29	1,067
Transportation.....	12	3,922	10	118	22	4,040
Transportation equipment.....	2	3,263	4	4	6	3,267
Unclassified.....	4	888	21	874	25	1,762

TABLE 2.—Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, August 1940,  
by States

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved
All States.....	274	149, 192	139	16, 689	413	165, 881
Alabama.....	8	1, 842	1	210	9	2, 052
Alaska.....	4	1, 740			4	1, 740
Arkansas.....	5	2, 668			5	2, 668
California.....	15	4, 059	11	5, 439	26	9, 498
Colorado.....	1	25			1	25
Connecticut.....	4	387	3	5	7	392
District of Columbia.....	10	1, 408	12	110	22	1, 518
Florida.....	5	2, 801	7	15	12	2, 816
Georgia.....	2	27	2	95	4	122
Idaho.....	2	895			2	895
Illinois.....	11	10, 742	3	3	14	10, 745
Indiana.....	11	12, 730	5	573	16	13, 303
Iowa.....	6	737	3	113	9	850
Kansas.....	1	112	1	36	2	148
Kentucky.....	9	4, 410	4	86	13	4, 496
Louisiana.....	9	5, 916	5	6	14	5, 922
Maine.....	2	350			2	350
Maryland.....	4	6, 225	1	2	5	6, 227
Massachusetts.....	7	1, 400	5	6, 002	12	7, 402
Michigan.....	14	40, 653	5	14	19	40, 667
Minnesota.....	5	283	2	2	7	285
Mississippi.....	12	412	2	2	14	414
Missouri.....	13	3, 650	3	517	16	4, 167
Nebraska.....	3	29			3	29
New Jersey.....	10	1, 592	4	4	14	1, 596
New Mexico.....	1	150			1	150
New York.....	20	3, 002	17	291	37	3, 293
North Carolina.....	8	3, 132	2	101	10	3, 233
North Dakota.....	1	15			1	15
Ohio.....	13	2, 230	14	218	27	2, 448
Oklahoma.....	2	735			2	735
Oregon.....	1	215	3	1, 500	4	1, 715
Pennsylvania.....	23	23, 356	5	292	28	23, 648
South Carolina.....	1	1, 150	3	402	4	1, 552
South Dakota.....	2	45	1	500	3	545
Tennessee.....	4	1, 810	3	32	7	1, 842
Texas.....	2	8	5	7	7	15
Utah.....			1	7	1	7
Virginia.....	3	1, 092	2	2	5	1, 094
Washington.....	3	1, 937	2	101	5	2, 038
West Virginia.....	4	436			4	436
Wisconsin.....	13	4, 786	2	2	15	4, 788



## ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, 1939-40

THE United States Conciliation Service, during the fiscal year July 1, 1939, to June 30, 1940, disposed of 3,751 situations involving 1,145,205 workers. The services of this agency were requested by the employees, employers, and other interested parties. Of these situations, 1,977 were strikes, threatened strikes, lock-outs, and controversies, involving 1,015,540 workers. The remaining situations, involving 129,665 workers, were services rendered, such as filling requests for information, adjusting complaints, consulting with labor and management, etc.

The facilities of the Service were used in 27 major industrial fields, such as building trades, and the manufacture of foods, iron and steel, textiles, etc. (table 1), and were utilized by employees and employers in 46 States, Alaska, and the District of Columbia (table 2).

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, July 1, 1939, to June 30, 1940, by Industries*

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved
All industries.....	1, 977	1, 015, 540	1, 774	129, 665	3, 751	1, 145, 205
Agriculture.....	5	4, 627	4	1, 503	9	6, 130
Automobile.....	65	300, 027	30	7, 256	95	307, 283
Building trades.....	124	45, 676	162	4, 187	286	49, 863
Chemicals.....	61	12, 485	20	2, 459	81	14, 944
Communications.....	12	14, 082	9	1, 199	21	15, 281
Domestic and personal.....	134	17, 021	63	638	197	17, 659
Food.....	237	114, 216	90	1, 975	327	116, 191
Iron and steel.....	163	73, 852	76	3, 864	239	77, 716
Leather.....	35	7, 605	16	458	51	8, 063
Lumber.....	122	30, 499	45	1, 045	167	31, 544
Machinery.....	145	51, 161	86	1, 603	231	52, 764
Maritime.....	37	46, 726	77	21, 311	114	68, 037
Mining.....	28	43, 595	33	5, 379	61	48, 974
Motion pictures.....	13	24, 344	6	15	19	24, 359
Nonferrous metals.....	40	11, 029	5	517	45	11, 546
Paper.....	44	15, 404	16	1, 239	60	16, 643
Printing.....	27	3, 026	21	1, 445	48	4, 471
Petroleum.....	20	9, 890	81	3, 178	101	13, 068
Professional.....	10	1, 517	18	4, 228	28	5, 745
Rubber.....	27	9, 242	11	126	38	9, 368
Stone, clay, and glass.....	86	20, 442	38	501	124	20, 943
Textile.....	152	83, 235	189	14, 986	341	98, 221
Tobacco.....	12	1, 707	15	8, 511	27	10, 218
Trade.....	140	22, 721	85	634	225	23, 355
Transportation.....	131	15, 934	109	3, 191	240	19, 125
Transportation equipment.....	27	24, 871	9	200	36	25, 071
Utilities.....	15	2, 582	13	3, 351	28	5, 933
Unclassified.....	65	8, 024	447	34, 666	512	42, 690

TABLE 2.—Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, July 1, 1939, to June 30, 1940, by States

States	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Num-ber	Workers involved	Num-ber	Workers involved	Num-ber	Workers involved
All States.....	1, 977	1, 015, 540	1, 774	129, 665	3, 751	1, 145, 205
Alabama.....	56	18, 478	32	6, 019	88	24, 497
Alaska.....	4	157	4	903	8	1, 060
Arizona.....	8	475	2	26	10	501
Arkansas.....	19	2, 886	19	645	38	3, 531
California.....	130	96, 719	138	15, 753	268	112, 472
Colorado.....	12	1, 983	5	36	17	2, 019
Connecticut.....	19	5, 166	10	1, 071	29	6, 237
Delaware.....	2	154			2	154
District of Columbia.....	100	13, 184	194	5, 968	294	19, 152
Florida.....	37	6, 089	45	7, 749	82	13, 838
Georgia.....	16	4, 562	27	2, 957	43	7, 519
Idaho.....	2	10	3	3	5	13
Illinois.....	133	77, 242	121	13, 051	254	90, 293
Indiana.....	79	17, 796	59	1, 111	138	18, 907
Iowa.....	42	12, 591	30	1, 174	72	13, 765
Kansas.....	13	5, 400	8	52	21	5, 452
Kentucky.....	35	18, 092	14	582	49	18, 674
Louisiana.....	27	8, 471	55	3, 498	82	11, 969
Maine.....	4	515	3	155	7	670
Maryland.....	27	12, 006	20	1, 045	47	13, 051
Massachusetts.....	53	27, 177	48	4, 603	101	31, 780
Michigan.....	42	306, 784	33	5, 951	75	312, 735
Minnesota.....	37	7, 893	16	34	53	7, 927
Mississippi.....	7	1, 432	14	66	21	1, 498
Missouri.....	87	24, 854	62	844	149	25, 698
Montana.....	12	9, 738	4	153	16	9, 891
Nebraska.....	8	2, 160	5	522	13	2, 682
New Hampshire.....	6	518	6	218	12	736
New Jersey.....	75	18, 512	48	2, 228	123	20, 740
New Mexico.....	12	1, 439	7	8	19	1, 447
New York.....	126	64, 358	161	12, 805	287	77, 163
North Carolina.....	27	12, 284	49	2, 249	76	14, 533
North Dakota.....	4	450	1	2	5	452
Ohio.....	175	63, 650	121	8, 962	296	72, 612
Oklahoma.....	16	2, 685	11	2, 070	27	4, 755
Oregon.....	9	2, 818	13	662	22	3, 480
Pennsylvania.....	238	83, 484	114	7, 819	352	91, 303
Rhode Island.....	10	2, 103	14	1, 578	24	3, 681
South Carolina.....	17	13, 554	55	892	72	14, 446
South Dakota.....			5	41	5	41
Tennessee.....	43	5, 815	38	1, 470	81	7, 285
Texas.....	36	5, 513	42	2, 320	78	7, 833
Utah.....	10	798	15	774	25	1, 572
Virginia.....	45	10, 705	8	92	53	10, 797
Washington.....	51	26, 069	39	6, 672	90	32, 741
West Virginia.....	17	5, 301	31	1, 599	48	6, 900
Wisconsin.....	48	13, 377	18	3, 041	66	16, 418
Wyoming.....	1	93	7	192	8	285

## Labor Turn-Over

### LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, JULY 1940

TURN-OVER rates in July in approximately 6,300 manufacturing establishments with 2,500,000 employees remained virtually at the same level as for the preceding month. Total separations were reported at the rate of 3.35 per 100 employees compared with 3.36 in June. The accession rates were 4.76 and 4.77, respectively.

Marked changes, however, were indicated in some of the individual industries. The preparation for the manufacture of new models in the automobiles and bodies industry increased the lay-off rate to 22.22 per 100 employees compared with 6.93 in June. The high lay-off rate was accompanied by an accession rate of 8.74, of which 7.49 were rehiring and 1.25 were new hirings, indicating that some plants had resumed partial operations. In the cement industry the lay-off rate declined from 5.40 in June to 1.50 in July. The accession rate increased from 3.45 to 6.30 per 100 employees.

It is of particular interest that in a number of industries, the quit rate exceeded the lay-off rate. In most industries this has not occurred since 1930. Even in the industries where it occurred this month, it is due to a low lay-off rate and not to a high quit rate. In the predepression years an excess of quits over lay-offs commonly resulted from a high level of quits facilitated by a greater number of job opportunities.

In industries where the production schedules have been increased as a result of war orders, high accession rates continued. In the aircraft industry, the hiring rate was 12.40 compared with 13.27 in June; in shipbuilding it increased from 10.76 to 13.00 per 100 employees in July.



TABLE 1.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates in Representative Factories in 135 Industries<sup>1</sup>

Class of turn-over and year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Average
<b>Separations:</b>													
Quits:													
1940.....	0.63	0.62	0.67	0.74	0.77	0.78	0.85						
1939.....	.85	.64	.82	.76	.68	.73	.70	0.82	1.02	0.93	0.83	0.69	0.79
Discharges:													
1940.....	.14	.16	.15	.13	.13	.14	.14						
1939.....	.10	.10	.13	.10	.13	.12	.12	.14	.14	.17	.15	.12	.13
Lay-offs: <sup>2</sup>													
1940.....	2.55	2.67	2.53	2.69	2.78	2.32	2.25						
1939.....	2.24	1.87	2.23	2.60	2.67	2.46	2.54	2.05	1.58	1.81	1.97	2.65	2.22
Miscellaneous separations: <sup>3</sup>													
1940.....	.11	.11	.11	.10	.10	.12	.11						
Total:													
1940.....	3.43	3.56	3.46	3.66	3.78	3.36	3.35						
1939.....	3.19	2.61	3.18	3.46	3.48	3.31	3.36	3.01	2.79	2.91	2.95	3.46	3.14
<b>Accessions:<sup>4</sup></b>													
Rehirings:													
1940.....	1.96	1.26	1.38	1.42	1.49	2.06	1.94						
New Hirings:													
1940.....	1.78	1.72	1.56	1.63	1.87	2.70	2.83						
Total:													
1940.....	3.74	2.98	2.94	3.05	3.36	4.76	4.77						
1939.....	4.09	3.06	3.34	2.93	3.29	3.92	4.16	5.06	6.17	5.89	4.10	2.84	4.07

<sup>1</sup> The various turn-over rates represent the number of quits, discharges, lay-offs, total separations, and accessions per 100 employees.

<sup>2</sup> Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

<sup>3</sup> Beginning with January 1940, miscellaneous separations, such as deaths, permanently disabled, retired on pensions, etc., have been reported separately. Such separations were formerly reported under the classification "quits and miscellaneous separations."

<sup>4</sup> Beginning with January 1940, accessions have been separated into two classifications; rehires, which include workers hired after a separation of 3 months or less, and other employees hired.

### Analysis by Industries

In addition to the rates for all industries combined, detailed labor turn-over data are available for 36 separate manufacturing industries.

In 24 industries, the rate for new hirings exceeded the rehire rate. Outstanding among these were aircraft with a rehire rate of 0.15 and a new-hire rate of 12.25 per 100 employees; cast-iron pipe with 0.14 and 3.33; foundries and machine shops, 1.04 and 2.84; hardware, 0.90 and 3.00; machine tools, 0.16 and 2.89; paper and pulp, 0.72 and 2.01; radios and phonographs, 2.48 and 6.39; shipbuilding, 1.86 and 11.14; steam and hot-water heating apparatus, 1.05 and 5.70; and woolen and worsted goods, 2.35 and 6.14.

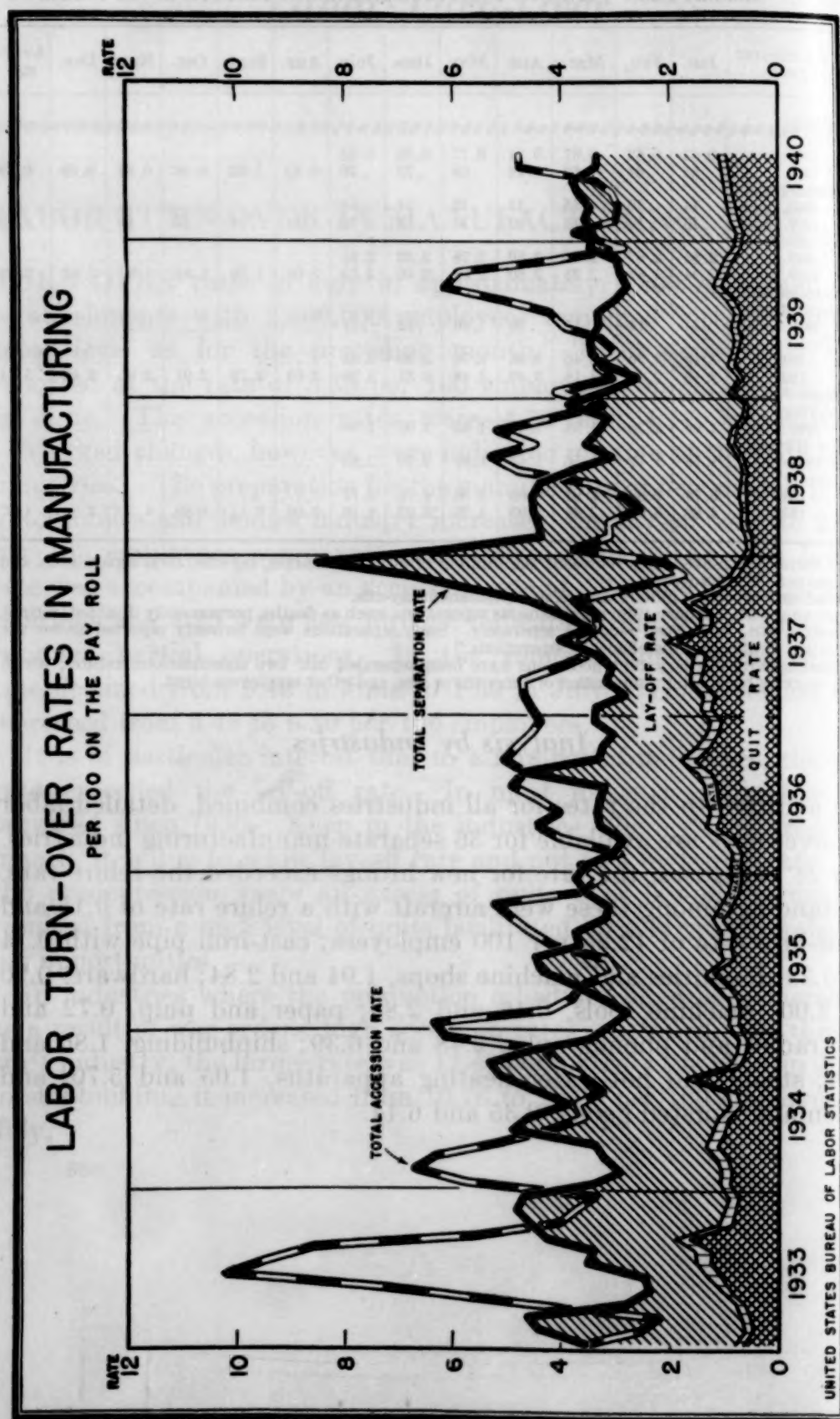


TABLE 2.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Factory Employees) in 36 Manufacturing Industries<sup>1</sup>

Class of turn-over	July 1940	June 1940	July 1939	July 1940	June 1940	July 1939	July 1940	June 1940	July 1939
	Agricultural implements			Aircraft			Automobiles and bodies		
Separations.....	2.90	2.47	4.00	3.57	3.06	3.56	22.79	7.76	24.76
Quits.....	.50	.54	.19	2.96	2.54	1.44	.48	.63	.66
Discharges.....	.12	.09	.06	.44	.40	.24	.05	.04	.08
Lay-offs.....	2.18	1.72	3.75	.15	.11	1.88	22.22	6.93	24.02
Miscellaneous separations <sup>2</sup> .....	.10	.12	-----	.02	.01	-----	.04	.16	-----
Accessions <sup>3</sup> .....	3.09	3.55	2.46	12.40	13.27	9.40	8.74	2.22	6.35
Rehirings.....	1.36	1.52	-----	.15	.13	-----	7.49	1.60	-----
New hirings.....	1.73	2.03	-----	12.25	13.14	-----	1.25	.62	-----
	Automobile parts			Boots and shoes			Brass, bronze, and copper products		
Separations.....	9.45	9.18	10.49	1.96	2.36	2.04	1.74	1.91	1.20
Quits.....	.80	.76	.59	.72	.62	.84	.79	.87	.37
Discharges.....	.25	.21	.22	.14	.10	.11	.07	.10	.06
Lay-offs.....	8.33	8.14	9.68	1.05	1.55	1.09	.77	.90	.77
Miscellaneous separations <sup>2</sup> .....	.07	.07	-----	.05	.09	-----	.11	.04	-----
Accessions <sup>3</sup> .....	9.10	6.17	6.92	4.43	4.59	4.03	5.58	3.93	2.18
Rehirings.....	5.74	3.08	-----	2.43	2.93	-----	1.73	1.44	-----
New hirings.....	3.36	3.09	-----	2.00	1.66	-----	3.85	2.49	-----
	Brick, tile, and terra cotta			Cast-iron pipe			Cement		
Separations.....	4.04	2.88	4.27	.55	2.67	1.48	2.18	6.00	2.05
Quits.....	0.87	.88	.64	.40	.96	.65	.33	.48	.39
Discharges.....	.14	.16	.17	.08	.16	.17	.11	.02	.06
Lay-offs.....	2.98	1.77	3.46	.04	1.52	.66	1.50	5.40	1.60
Miscellaneous separations <sup>2</sup> .....	.05	.05	-----	.03	.03	-----	.24	.10	-----
Accessions <sup>3</sup> .....	3.87	7.59	3.89	3.47	2.86	1.64	6.30	3.45	3.63
Rehirings.....	1.58	3.28	-----	.14	.60	-----	4.50	.59	-----
New hirings.....	2.29	4.31	-----	3.33	2.26	-----	1.80	2.86	-----
	Cigars and cigarettes			Cotton manufacturing			Dyeing and finishing textiles		
Separations.....	3.04	2.33	2.65	3.99	4.28	2.74	1.55	3.04	1.69
Quits.....	1.27	1.25	1.08	1.40	1.30	1.28	.75	.85	.68
Discharges.....	.07	.11	.07	.17	.16	.19	.16	.11	.17
Lay-offs.....	1.58	.78	1.50	2.29	2.70	1.27	.52	2.02	.84
Miscellaneous separations <sup>2</sup> .....	.12	.19	-----	.13	.12	-----	.12	.06	-----
Accessions <sup>3</sup> .....	1.93	2.91	2.61	4.32	4.09	4.49	3.41	2.36	3.61
Rehirings.....	.61	.70	-----	2.06	2.20	-----	1.71	.86	-----
New hirings.....	1.32	2.21	-----	2.26	1.89	-----	1.70	1.50	-----
	Electrical machinery			Foundries and machine shops			Furniture		
Separations.....	1.86	1.76	1.33	1.91	1.96	1.81	3.24	3.06	2.44
Quits.....	.68	.59	.61	.71	.72	.40	.97	.88	.76
Discharges.....	.10	.07	.06	.13	.19	.07	.23	.22	.21
Lay-offs.....	.90	.87	.66	.99	.96	1.34	1.95	1.86	1.47
Miscellaneous separations <sup>2</sup> .....	.18	.23	-----	.08	.09	-----	.09	.10	-----
Accessions <sup>3</sup> .....	4.75	4.54	3.25	3.88	3.89	2.65	5.11	4.54	4.81
Rehirings.....	1.71	1.97	-----	1.04	1.25	-----	2.14	2.37	-----
New hirings.....	3.04	2.57	-----	2.84	2.64	-----	2.97	2.17	-----

See footnotes at end of table.



TABLE 2.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Factory Employees) in 36 Manufacturing Industries—Continued

Class of turn-over	July 1940	June 1940	July 1939	July 1940	June 1940	July 1939	July 1940	June 1940	July 1939
	Glass			Hardware			Iron and steel		
Separations.....	4.38	3.65	1.58	2.85	2.62	1.90	1.20	1.10	1.04
Quits.....	.51	.50	.33	1.29	1.02	.44	.59	.42	.31
Discharges.....	.10	.08	.03	.08	.07	.09	.08	.07	.04
Lay-offs.....	3.63	2.98	1.22	1.36	1.43	1.37	.38	.37	.69
Miscellaneous separations <sup>1</sup> .....	.14	.09	-----	.12	.10	-----	.15	.24	-----
Accessions <sup>2</sup> .....	4.57	2.36	2.27	3.90	2.57	1.52	3.91	6.10	1.69
Rehirings.....	2.34	.74	-----	.90	.47	-----	1.35	3.26	-----
New hirings.....	2.23	1.62	-----	3.00	2.10	-----	2.56	2.84	-----
	Knit goods			Machine tools			Men's clothing		
Separations.....	2.95	3.20	2.62	2.09	2.21	0.99	4.48	4.96	2.07
Quits.....	.84	.81	1.03	1.28	1.28	.61	.86	.88	.80
Discharges.....	.14	.11	.15	.54	.39	.10	.20	.15	.08
Lay-offs.....	1.91	2.23	1.44	.21	.47	.28	3.35	3.87	1.19
Miscellaneous separations <sup>1</sup> .....	.06	.05	-----	.06	.07	-----	.07	.06	-----
Accessions <sup>2</sup> .....	3.17	2.52	2.80	3.05	5.38	3.81	6.18	8.25	4.78
Rehirings.....	1.83	1.50	-----	.16	.33	-----	4.34	6.66	-----
New hirings.....	1.34	1.02	-----	2.89	5.05	-----	1.84	1.59	-----
	Paints and varnishes			Paper and pulp			Petroleum refining		
Separations.....	1.92	1.89	1.38	1.46	1.71	2.10	1.44	1.57	2.30
Quits.....	.75	.51	.80	.50	.49	.51	.40	.34	.38
Discharges.....	.25	.39	.18	.15	.10	.11	.05	.08	.07
Lay-offs.....	.85	.94	.40	.64	.95	1.48	.93	.97	1.85
Miscellaneous separations <sup>1</sup> .....	.07	.05	-----	.17	.17	-----	.06	.18	-----
Accessions <sup>2</sup> .....	3.66	2.21	2.09	2.73	2.82	1.81	1.57	2.54	2.36
Rehirings.....	1.15	.70	-----	.72	.59	-----	.37	.49	-----
New hirings.....	2.51	1.51	-----	2.01	2.23	-----	1.20	2.05	-----
	Printing and publishing						Radios and phonographs		
	Book and job			Newspapers					
Separations.....	3.65	4.59	4.21	1.96	1.96	1.78	2.87	3.48	3.06
Quits.....	.50	.57	.48	.44	.27	.40	1.66	1.51	1.10
Discharges.....	.06	.14	.16	.02	.13	.04	.13	.16	.15
Lay-offs.....	3.02	3.80	3.57	1.45	1.48	1.34	1.05	1.81	1.81
Miscellaneous separations <sup>1</sup> .....	.07	.08	-----	.05	.08	-----	.03	-----	-----
Accessions <sup>2</sup> .....	3.74	3.67	3.78	1.26	1.55	1.27	8.87	7.93	6.51
Rehirings.....	1.82	1.83	-----	.66	.69	-----	2.48	2.72	-----
New hirings.....	1.92	1.84	-----	.60	.86	-----	6.39	5.21	-----
	Rayon and allied products			Rubber boots and shoes			Rubber tires		
Separations.....	1.29	1.62	1.20	1.99	2.56	1.35	2.59	4.39	1.30
Quits.....	.59	.56	.71	.85	.78	.64	.42	.39	.39
Discharges.....	.11	.15	.14	.07	.08	.08	.04	.05	.05
Lay-offs.....	.56	.90	.35	.87	1.50	.63	2.00	3.88	.84
Miscellaneous separations <sup>1</sup> .....	.03	.01	-----	.20	.20	-----	.13	.07	-----
Accessions <sup>2</sup> .....	2.39	2.17	3.30	3.01	3.40	3.10	2.84	1.99	3.00
Rehirings.....	.56	.36	-----	1.76	1.39	-----	.96	.94	-----
New hirings.....	1.83	1.81	-----	1.25	2.01	-----	1.88	1.05	-----

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Factory Employees) in 36 Manufacturing Industries—Continued

Class of turn-over	July 1940	June 1940	July 1939	July 1940	June 1940	July 1939	July 1940	June 1940	July 1939
	Sawmills			Shipbuilding			Silk and rayon goods		
Separations.....	2.97	4.52	3.55	5.40	5.30	4.01	2.68	6.30	2.68
Quits.....	1.26	1.03	1.14	1.14	1.05	.67	.77	1.10	1.29
Discharges.....	.17	.15	.18	.48	.27	.21	.13	.14	.06
Lay-offs.....	1.45	3.19	2.23	3.71	3.89	3.13	1.70	4.95	1.33
Miscellaneous separations <sup>1</sup> .....	.09	.15	-----	.07	.09	-----	.08	.11	-----
Accessions <sup>2</sup> .....	5.75	5.27	5.05	13.00	10.76	7.28	7.01	3.62	8.57
Rehirings.....	2.15	2.05	-----	1.86	1.61	-----	4.20	1.64	-----
New hirings.....	3.60	3.22	-----	11.14	9.15	-----	2.81	1.98	-----
	Slaughtering and meat packing			Steam and hot-water heating apparatus			Woolen and worsted goods		
Separations.....	7.02	4.79	5.03	1.70	1.83	1.14	3.69	3.48	3.00
Quits.....	.61	.60	.55	.96	.87	.48	1.24	.69	.96
Discharges.....	.15	.20	.17	.18	.13	.09	.10	.06	.20
Lay-offs.....	6.07	3.83	4.31	.46	.72	.57	2.23	2.66	1.84
Miscellaneous separations <sup>1</sup> .....	.19	.16	-----	.10	.11	-----	.12	.07	-----
Accessions <sup>2</sup> .....	7.41	9.16	7.42	6.75	2.99	2.76	8.49	12.17	6.85
Rehirings.....	4.38	4.96	-----	1.05	.61	-----	2.35	8.66	-----
New hirings.....	3.03	4.20	-----	5.70	2.38	-----	6.14	3.51	-----

<sup>1</sup> No individual industry data shown unless reports cover at least 25 percent of industrial employment.<sup>2</sup> Prior to January 1940, miscellaneous separations were included with "quits".<sup>3</sup> No breakdown of accessions prior to January 1940.

# *Wages and Hours of Labor*

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## HOURLY EARNINGS IN LUGGAGE AND MISCELLANEOUS LEATHER PRODUCTS INDUSTRIES, 1939<sup>1</sup>

### *Summary*

HOURLY earnings of all workers in the luggage industry averaged 52.4 cents in November and December 1939. In the miscellaneous leather products industry the wage level was somewhat lower, the average for all wage earners during the latter part of 1939 being 41.9 cents an hour.

In both industries large proportions of the employees were found in the low-earnings classes. In the luggage industry considerably more than half (53.6 percent) earned less than 47.5 cents an hour and more than one-third (34.2 percent) were paid less than 40 cents. Of the employees in the miscellaneous leather products industry, 63.0 percent averaged less than 40 cents and 40.4 percent received less than 35 cents.

This report is the third of a series of surveys recently made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics on earnings and hours in industries which are classified by the Census of Manufactures under the group of "leather and its manufactures." The first survey covered "boots and shoes, other than rubber," and "boot and shoe cut stock and findings."<sup>2</sup> The second survey included the manufacture (tanning, currying, and finishing) of leather and leather belting and packing.<sup>3</sup> The present survey covers luggage (trunks, suitcases, and brief cases) and certain miscellaneous leather products included by the Census of Manufactures under "leather goods—small articles" and "leather goods not elsewhere classified."<sup>4</sup>

The information presented in this report was compiled from data collected by the Bureau's field representatives, who visited each estab-

<sup>1</sup> Prepared by H. O. Rogers, P. L. Jones, and John F. Laciskey, of the Bureau's Division of Wage and Hour Statistics.

<sup>2</sup> See U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics Bull. No. 670: Earnings and Hours in Shoe and Allied Industries, During First Quarter of 1939.

<sup>3</sup> See U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics Bull. No. 679: Earnings and Hours in the Leather and Leather Belting and Packing Industries, September 1939. (In press.)

<sup>4</sup> For a more detailed definition of luggage, also miscellaneous leather products, see pp. 976 and 987.



lishment included in the survey. For every worker,<sup>5</sup> information was obtained concerning his occupation, sex, race,<sup>6</sup> total hours worked, and total earnings for one pay-roll period during November and December, 1939.<sup>7</sup> Certain general plant information concerning full-time hours, overtime rates, methods of wage payment, and employer-employee dealings was also obtained from the cooperating establishments. Most of the data were available from the pay-roll and other company records, but these sources were supplemented by interviews with plant officials.

As this was the first survey that has ever been made by the Bureau of the luggage and miscellaneous leather products industries, detailed occupational descriptions were obtained from a large number of the establishments. This information, together with the job descriptions compiled by the United States Employment Service, furnished the basis for the occupational classifications used in the report.

As in other wage surveys, the occupations found in these industries were classified according to skill. In doing this, the Bureau was guided by the prevailing opinion of plant supervisors and foremen, as well as certain standards that have been developed by various governmental agencies. Opinions regarding the proper skill classification of some occupations, however, are frequently conflicting. For this reason, any classification of occupations by skill tends to be somewhat arbitrary. Nevertheless, it is believed that the skill designations used here are essentially accurate.

It is especially important to note that the information presented in this report is based on a period subsequent to October 24, 1939, when the hourly minimum of 30 cents and the maximum workweek of 42 hours became effective under the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. Under these provisions, all workers employed in establishments engaged in interstate commerce who work in excess of 42 hours a week were entitled to time and one-half for overtime. Unless otherwise indicated, the hourly earnings shown in this report

<sup>5</sup> This report is confined to wage earners, including working supervisors and plant clerks; the higher supervisory officials were excluded. The survey also covered office employees in central or other offices that are separate and distinct from the plants, but the information concerning these workers is presented separately.

<sup>6</sup> There was not a sufficient number of colored workers in the plants covered to justify any separate tabulation.

<sup>7</sup> In establishments where the pay-roll period exceeded 1 week, there was also obtained the number of hours worked during 1 continuous week within the pay-roll period. This enabled the Bureau to present weekly hours, as well as weekly earnings for all workers.

are based on regular rates. In other words, they do not reflect the earnings from the extra rates paid for overtime work.<sup>8</sup>

## PART 1.—LUGGAGE INDUSTRY

### *Definition of the Industry*

The luggage manufacturing industry, as defined by the Census of Manufactures, embraces establishments engaged wholly or principally "in the manufacture of trunks, suitcases, brief cases, sample cases, traveling bags, satchels, Boston bags, hat boxes, and related products, regardless of the materials from which they are made." Thus defined, the industry accounts for a wide variety of products, and even for the same product there are considerable differences in appearance, quality, and price.

In broad essentials, the definition of the industry used in this survey conforms closely with that of the Census of Manufactures. There are, however, a few minor differences that are worth noting. First, the survey included instrument cases, which are classified by the Census of Manufactures under "jewelry and instrument cases." Second, the survey excluded employees engaged on certain wood-working operations necessary to the making of wooden boxes, bodies, or panels used in the production of suitcases or trunks. In the Census of Manufactures, however, these workers are included in the luggage industry.

Despite the wide variety of products, all establishments in the luggage industry have a number of characteristics in common. This is particularly true of processes of manufacture and the type of labor required.

### *Characteristics of the Industry*

Luggage manufacturing is an industry composed of a relatively large number of small concerns. The Census of Manufactures shows that in 1937 there were 277<sup>9</sup> establishments engaged primarily in the making of luggage. During the year, these plants employed an average of 8,708 wage earners, or approximately 31 workers per establishment. In fact, virtually two-thirds of the plants employed not more than 20 workers and over one-fourth had not more than 5 wage earners. By contrast, only 15 establishments reported over 100 workers.

<sup>8</sup> In most surveys made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the compensation resulting from the extra rates for overtime work is included in computing average hourly earnings. The present survey, however, was made at the request of the economic section of the Wage and Hour Division, in order to provide reliable information on wages for use of the industry committee that has been established under the Fair Labor Standards Act. For this reason, it was considered desirable to exclude the earnings at the extra rates.

Although made primarily for the Wage and Hour Division, the Bureau has strictly adhered here to its long-established policy of keeping confidential all data obtained from individual establishments.

<sup>9</sup> Includes only plants with an annual production valued at \$5,000 and over.

In the aggregate, the value of products manufactured by the 277 establishments in the industry, including receipts for contract work, was \$38,719,941 in 1937, and the value added by manufacture amounted to \$18,185,666. The total wage bill was \$8,458,472, representing somewhat less than one-half of the value added by manufacture. Thus luggage manufacturing is a comparatively small industry both in the number of workers employed and in value of products.

One of the distinctive features of the industry is its marked concentration in the Northern States. According to the Census of Manufactures, there were only 8 plants located in the Southern States in 1937. Within the Northern States, the industry is concentrated in the Middle Atlantic States, East North Central States, and Massachusetts. A number of establishments are located on the Pacific Coast, especially in California.

Luggage manufacturing is also heavily concentrated in the large metropolitan areas with a population of 1,000,000 and over. New York and Chicago are particularly important centers, each accounting for a major fraction of the industry. Other centers of importance are Philadelphia, St. Louis, and Detroit. On the Pacific Coast, most of the plants are located in San Francisco and Los Angeles. Proximity to the principal labor and consumer markets has been the chief factor determining the location of the industry.

Largely due to the small size of the average luggage manufacturing establishment, owner management is quite prevalent in the industry. Not only is corporate ownership much less common than in other industries, but the great bulk of the industry's output is accounted for by single-plant companies. Multi-unit concerns are exceptional.

Another distinctive characteristic is that the manufacture of luggage is essentially an industry of semiskilled workers. Taking the industry as a whole, more than three-fifths (61.7 percent) of the labor force were classed as semiskilled. There were 23.5 percent skilled and 14.8 percent unskilled employees. Although the skilled workers constituted only one-fourth of the total labor force, a considerable degree of manual dexterity is required for a substantial proportion of the operations. This is largely due to the fact that, despite the extensive adoption of machine methods, comparatively few of the machines are completely automatic.

It is also significant that women constitute a substantial proportion of the industry's working force. Of the total wage earners employed by the plants included in this survey, 34.2 percent were females. For the most part, women were employed in the lining and finishing departments. The overwhelming majority of the women were semiskilled and hardly any were classed as skilled.



In recent years, considerable progress has been made by unions in organizing the employees in the luggage industry. At the time of this survey, approximately three-fifths of the workers were employed in union establishments.<sup>10</sup> Several important unions are now active in the industry. The Suitcase, Bag, and Portfolio Makers Union and the International Ladies' Handbag, Pocketbook, and Novelty Workers Union are affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, the first being confined largely to New York City and other important producing centers in the East and the second being active in the Chicago and middle-western area. Another union is the International Fur and Leather Workers of the United States and Canada, an affiliate of the Congress of Industrial Organizations. On the Pacific Coast, several establishments have agreements with the Luggage Workers Union of America, an independent union not affiliated with either the C. I. O. or A. F. of L.

The unions are particularly strong in certain of the more important producing centers. In the New York metropolitan area, for example, more than two-thirds of the establishments included in the survey were unionized. The unions were likewise strong in Chicago, Philadelphia, and San Francisco. In many other localities, on the other hand, very little headway has been made by the unions.

Employment in the luggage industry is influenced by the seasonal character of demand. Ordinarily, the high point of production is reached in the late summer or early fall, and the slack period occurs in the winter and early spring.

### *Scope of Survey*

Like most wage studies conducted by the Bureau, the present survey was made on the basis of a carefully selected sample. All of the larger plants with approximately 100 or more wage earners were included in the survey. By contrast, the survey covered only about one-half of the small and medium-sized concerns. In the selection of these establishments, however, every effort was made to maintain a perfect balance with the plants that were omitted from the survey. Among the factors considered in building up the sample were size of establishment, product, geographical location, size of community, unionization, etc. In the aggregate, information was obtained from 152 plants<sup>11</sup> that were engaged in the manufacture of luggage.

The figures for the small and medium-sized establishments were weighted by 2, to which were added the data covering the larger plants, so that the combined figures represent the total industry.

<sup>10</sup> A union establishment, as defined in this survey, is one in which the majority of the employees are covered by either a written or oral agreement with an affiliated union. Plants with employee-representation plans were included with the nonunion establishments. Of the plants covered in the present survey, however, only one reported an employee-representation plan.

<sup>11</sup> The survey was limited to establishments employing 3 or more wage earners.

The weighted number of workers covered in the survey amounted to 9,709.

Table 1 shows the weighted number of workers distributed by States.

TABLE 1.—*Coverage of Survey in Luggage Industry, by States, November and December 1939*

State	Number of workers (weighted)	Percent of workers	State	Number of workers (weighted)	Percent of workers
United States.....	9,709	100.0	New Jersey.....	1,100	11.3
California.....	284	2.9	New York.....	1,959	20.3
Illinois.....	1,514	15.6	Ohio.....	200	2.7
Indiana.....	120	1.2	Pennsylvania.....	631	6.5
Massachusetts.....	663	6.8	Washington.....	65	.7
Michigan.....	446	4.6	Wisconsin.....	515	5.3
Missouri.....	809	8.3	Other States <sup>1</sup> .....	1,343	13.8

<sup>1</sup> Includes 2 plants in Colorado, 2 in Iowa, 1 in Kentucky, 2 in Maryland, 1 in Minnesota, 1 in Oregon, 1 in Rhode Island, 1 in Texas, and 2 in Virginia.

### Average Hourly Earnings

#### METHODS OF WAGE PAYMENTS

A substantial majority of the wage earners in the luggage industry are paid on a straight time-rate basis. In fact, this was the exclusive method of remuneration in almost one-half of the establishments for which information was obtained. Including salaried employees, 72.4 percent of the wage earners in the industry were paid on a straight time-rate basis. Most of these workers were paid by the hour, but there were a few occupations, such as working foreman and maintenance workers, that were customarily paid on a weekly or monthly basis.

Although time workers predominated by a wide margin, straight piece rates were reported for more than one-fourth of the wage earners. Piece-rate workers were most frequently found among the skilled and semiskilled occupations. The occupations most commonly paid piece rates were bag, suitcase, and trunk assemblers; sewing-machine operators; glue-spreading-machine operators; riveting-machine operators; suitcase coverers; and trunk makers, panel assembling. Hardly any of the unskilled workers were paid piece rates.

A production-bonus system of wage payment was reported by only a single plant.

#### HOURLY EARNINGS OF ALL WORKERS

Hourly earnings of all wage earners in the luggage industry averaged 52.4 cents in November and December 1939. Between individual establishments, however, the earnings varied conspicuously. In fact, the extreme spread was from 13.8 cents to \$1.018 an hour. Despite this wide diversity, the average hourly earnings in almost two-thirds of the plants were restricted to the relatively narrow limits of

35 and 60 cents. These employed virtually three-fourths of the workers in the industry. The plants averaging under 35 cents employed less than 6 percent of the wage earners, and those averaging 60 cents and over accounted for more than one-fifth of the employees.

The broad dispersion of wages in the luggage industry is further emphasized by table 2, which presents the percentage distribution of the labor force according to average hourly earnings. It will be seen that individual hourly earnings range from under 25 cents to well above \$1. Although the spread is quite wide, a substantial majority of employees tend to concentrate in the lower wage classes. Considerably more than one-half (53.6 percent) earned less than 47.5 cents, and more than one-third (34.2 percent) were paid less than 40 cents. Hourly earnings of 57.5 cents and over are shown for 30.9 percent of the workers, but only 3.7 percent were paid as much as \$1 and over.

TABLE 2.—Percentage Distribution of Luggage Workers by Average Hourly Earnings, Sex, and Skill, November and December 1939

Average hourly earnings (cents)	All workers				Males				Females		
	Total	Skilled	Semi-skilled <sup>1</sup>	Unskilled	Total	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Unskilled	Total	Semi-skilled <sup>1</sup>	Unskilled
Under 25.0.....	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	.....	0.2	0.1	0.1	.....
25.0 and under 27.5.....	.4	.1	( <sup>2</sup> )	2.5	.4	.1	0.1	1.9	.5	.....	4.1
27.5 and under 30.0.....	.4	.1	.2	2.0	.6	.1	.3	2.5	.2	.2	.5
Exactly 30.0.....	10.6	.8	10.6	26.5	6.6	.8	5.2	23.4	18.4	16.3	34.9
30.1 and under 32.5.....	2.5	.5	2.9	4.0	1.1	.5	.7	3.9	5.1	5.2	4.3
32.5 and under 35.0.....	3.6	.8	4.2	5.5	1.9	.8	1.9	4.5	6.8	6.6	7.8
35.0 and under 37.5.....	9.1	1.8	10.3	15.9	5.7	1.8	5.6	14.7	15.6	15.4	19.0
37.5 and under 40.0.....	7.5	1.1	8.6	13.3	4.7	1.1	5.2	11.3	13.0	12.2	18.5
40.0 and under 42.5.....	7.7	2.8	9.3	8.7	5.9	2.8	6.8	10.1	11.0	11.9	4.8
42.5 and under 47.5.....	11.7	6.8	13.9	9.3	11.0	6.8	13.9	10.9	12.8	13.8	5.1
47.5 and under 52.5.....	8.0	8.7	8.4	5.3	9.1	8.7	10.2	6.9	5.9	6.5	1.0
52.5 and under 57.5.....	7.5	9.0	8.0	3.0	9.2	9.0	10.8	4.2	4.4	5.0	.....
57.5 and under 62.5.....	5.5	7.4	5.7	2.0	7.4	7.4	8.9	2.7	2.1	2.3	.....
62.5 and under 67.5.....	5.7	10.2	5.1	.9	7.8	10.2	8.2	1.2	1.7	1.9	.....
67.5 and under 72.5.....	3.7	7.0	3.2	.7	5.3	7.0	5.6	1.0	.7	.8	.....
72.5 and under 77.5.....	3.1	6.6	2.4	.3	4.4	6.6	4.1	.5	.5	.6	.....
77.5 and under 82.5.....	2.0	4.9	1.4	.....	2.9	4.9	2.3	.....	.4	.4	.....
82.5 and under 87.5.....	2.5	6.5	1.6	.....	3.6	6.5	2.6	.....	.4	.4	.....
87.5 and under 92.5.....	2.2	5.5	1.5	.....	3.3	5.5	2.7	.....	.2	.2	.....
92.5 and under 100.0.....	2.5	6.6	1.5	.....	3.6	6.6	2.7	.....	.2	.2	.....
100.0 and under 110.0.....	2.3	7.9	.7	.....	3.4	7.9	1.3	.....	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	.....
110.0 and under 120.0.....	.6	2.0	.1	.....	.8	2.0	.3	.....	.....	.....	.....
120.0 and under 130.0.....	.4	1.2	.2	.....	.6	1.2	.4	.....	.....	.....	.....
130.0 and over.....	.4	1.5	.1	.....	.6	1.5	.2	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers (weighted).....	9,709	2,285	5,993	1,431	6,393	2,285	3,072	1,036	3,316	2,921	395
Average hourly earnings.....	\$0.524	\$0.709	\$0.435	\$0.376	\$0.584	\$0.709	\$0.556	\$0.388	\$0.398	\$0.405	\$0.342

<sup>1</sup> Includes 126 females who were reported as skilled.

<sup>2</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

#### VARIATIONS BY SEX AND SKILL

A large part of the dispersion of hourly earnings in the luggage industry may be explained by the sharply contrasting wage levels of the different groups of employees. Compared with an average of



70.9 cents for skilled males, semiskilled males averaged 55.6 cents and the unskilled males 38.8 cents. The hourly earnings of the female workers, by contrast, averaged 40.5 cents for semiskilled and 34.2 cents for unskilled. The extreme spread between the highest- and lowest-paid groups was thus 36.7 cents.

With minor exceptions, representation in the higher-earnings classes is restricted to the skilled and semiskilled males. Whereas earnings of 67.5 cents an hour and over are shown for virtually one-half (49.7 percent) of the skilled males and for more than a fifth (22.2 percent) of the semiskilled males, this wage level was reached by only 2.6 percent of the semiskilled females and 1.5 percent of the unskilled males. For the unskilled females, the class of 47.5 and under 52.5 cents marks the upper limit of hourly earnings.

Equally striking differences appear at the lower end of the distributions. Below the level of 35 cents an hour, for example, were found 51.6 percent of the unskilled females, 36.4 percent of the unskilled males, and 28.4 percent of the semiskilled females. By contrast, hourly earnings of under 35 cents are shown for only 8.2 percent of the semiskilled males and no more than 2.5 percent of the skilled males.

#### HOURLY EARNINGS IN RELATION TO FAIR LABOR STANDARDS ACT

In November and December 1939, only a small minority of the wage earners in the luggage industry were paid less than 30 cents an hour, the minimum rate that became effective on October 24, 1939, under the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Taking the industry as a whole, no more than 0.9 percent of the total labor force fell below the 30-cent level. Most of the workers who were paid less than the legal minimum were unskilled, but there was a small scattering in other classes of employees.<sup>12</sup>

Although the number of workers receiving less than 30 cents an hour was relatively unimportant, the influence of the minimum is clearly evident from table 2. At the time of the survey, one-tenth (10.6 percent) of the wage earners employed received exactly 30 cents. This concentration was due largely to the heavy massing of unskilled workers at this point, hourly earnings of exactly 30 cents being shown for more than one-third (34.9 percent) of the unskilled females and almost one-fourth (23.4 percent) of the unskilled males. Approximately one-sixth (16.3 percent) of the semiskilled females also were paid exactly 30 cents. Among the skilled and semiskilled males, the tendency of earnings to concentrate at or near the minimum was much less conspicuous.

Under the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act, it is possible for the Administrator, upon the recommendation of an industry

<sup>12</sup> It is interesting to note that less than one-fourth of the employees paid under 30 cents an hour came from an establishment that claimed to be engaged in intrastate commerce only.

committee, to establish an hourly minimum at any point up to 40 cents. An examination of table 2 shows that earnings below the 40-cent level were reported for 5.4 percent of the skilled, 36.9 percent of the semiskilled, and 69.8 percent of the unskilled employees.

The impact of any minimum that might be established under the Fair Labor Standards Act would not be shared equally by the entire industry. This fact is illustrated by table 3, which shows the percentage distribution of workers in groups of plants having approximately the same wage level.

TABLE 3.—Cumulative Percentage Distribution of Luggage Workers by Average Hourly Earnings and Groups of Plants, November and December 1939

Average hourly earnings	Plants having average hourly earnings (in cents) of—														
	Under 35.0	35.0 and under 40.0	40.0 and under 42.5	42.5 and under 45.0	45.0 and under 47.5	47.5 and under 50.0	50.0 and under 52.5	52.5 and under 55.0	55.0 and under 57.5	57.5 and under 60.0	60.0 and under 62.5	62.5 and under 65.0	65.0 and under 70.0	70.0 and under 75.0	75.0 and over
Under 25.0 cents	1.4		0.2												
Under 27.5 cents	1.8	5.0	.9	0.2	0.3			0.3		0.4					
Under 30.0 cents	1.8	5.0	.9	.7	.7	0.3	1.5	.6		.4			1.3	1.1	0.3
Under 30.1 cents	67.3	40.3	26.5	10.7	5.4	1.1	3.5	2.8	2.0	.8	2.0	1.3	15.7	3.0	1.5
Under 32.5 cents	77.0	43.7	28.3	15.3	8.4	2.4	4.8	4.8	3.0	2.0	4.0	2.6	17.5	4.2	2.5
Under 35.0 cents	85.0	49.6	32.9	20.0	14.8	6.0	7.2	5.9	4.0	3.8	6.4	5.2	18.6	5.2	3.0
Under 37.5 cents	90.4	61.4	42.9	36.5	31.0	16.4	16.7	12.1	15.1	11.4	9.5	5.2	20.7	7.0	3.7
Under 40.0 cents	93.3	64.6	48.8	50.2	40.2	35.1	24.2	20.6	18.1	16.9	10.7	6.5	21.4	8.3	3.7
Under 42.5 cents	94.7	68.9	66.7	57.4	50.5	46.0	34.6	26.6	20.1	25.5	15.4	11.7	22.3	9.8	4.4
Under 47.5 cents	96.9	80.5	77.4	71.6	66.7	57.2	52.8	36.5	31.2	36.4	29.6	15.6	28.0	22.2	8.0
Under 52.5 cents	98.0	88.4	86.7	79.4	77.7	66.2	61.8	47.8	40.3	46.2	39.4	23.4	32.8	25.9	10.7
Under 57.5 cents	98.4	94.7	91.9	86.6	85.6	75.5	70.1	60.0	52.5	53.2	51.6	35.1	38.5	32.5	16.3
Under 62.5 cents	98.8	96.5	95.3	91.1	89.9	80.9	77.7	70.5	62.6	61.0	55.7	48.0	43.3	37.0	23.2
Under 67.5 cents	99.2	97.4	96.0	94.5	92.6	87.4	84.5	80.2	76.7	69.6	66.6	58.4	54.0	46.2	32.5
Under 72.5 cents	99.2	98.8	96.7	96.4	94.7	90.0	88.2	87.6	88.9	77.4	71.3	68.8	59.3	51.9	38.9
Under 77.5 cents	99.6	99.0	98.3	97.2	96.6	92.0	90.2	93.8	95.0	84.0	78.8	79.2	63.9	56.4	44.8
Under 82.5 cents	99.6	99.0	98.5	98.6	97.3	93.4	92.2	97.3	96.0	86.7	82.7	87.0	66.2	61.3	50.7
Under 87.5 cents	99.6	99.5	99.2	98.7	98.4	95.2	94.2	98.4	96.0	89.2	84.3	88.3	73.3	71.7	60.4
Under 92.5 cents	99.6	99.5	99.4	99.6	98.9	97.4	96.7	99.0	98.0	90.0	88.6	93.5	76.7	78.8	70.4
Under 100.0 cents	99.6	99.5	99.8	99.8	99.4	97.9	97.9	99.6	98.0	94.5	94.1	98.7	85.5	87.7	82.0
Under 110.0 cents	99.6	99.5	100.0	100.0	99.7	99.1	99.4	99.6	100.0	96.8	97.6	100.0	95.6	95.3	93.6
Under 120.0 cents	100.0	99.5			100.0	99.3	99.4	99.9		98.2	100.0		97.0	97.3	95.8
Under 130.0 cents		99.5				99.5	99.8	99.9		99.0			98.6	99.0	97.8
Number of workers (weighted)	532	441	878	845	1,354	1,190	1,012	714	198	488	254	154	435	595	590

#### INFLUENCE OF PLANT LOCATION ON HOURLY EARNINGS

In contrast with many other industries, there are no well-defined geographical differences in hourly earnings in the luggage industry. It is true that all establishments averaging 55 cents and over were located in the Northern States, but this region likewise accounted for all plants that averaged under 37.5 cents. Both the highest-and lowest-paid concerns were distributed widely on a geographical basis. Furthermore, it is interesting to note that most of the highest-paid establishments were union,<sup>13</sup> while all but one of the lowest-paid

<sup>13</sup> In fact, all except 1 of the establishments averaging 65 cents and over were union.

plants were nonunion, thus indicating that unionization is more important than geographical location as a factor in the wage structure. The southern establishments included in the survey (both union and nonunion) were in the intermediate wage classes, averaging more than 37.5 cents but less than 55 cents.

#### DIFFERENCE BETWEEN UNION AND NONUNION PLANTS

Average hourly earnings of wage earners employed in plants that were operating under union agreements were considerably higher than those of workers employed in nonunion establishments. (See table 4.) Compared with an average of 45.8 cents for all wage earners in nonunion plants, the average for the union establishments was 57.9 cents, a difference of 12.1 cents.

Although the advantage in favor of the union plants was shared by each of the principal classes of wage earners, the difference was most pronounced for the skilled workers, whose hourly earnings averaged 78.1 cents in the union establishments as against 60.3 cents in the nonunion plants. The difference narrowed as the skill of the employees declined.

TABLE 4.—Average Hourly Earnings of Luggage Workers, by Sex, Skill, and Unionization, November and December 1939

Sex and skill	Average hourly earnings			Number of workers (weighted)		
	All plants	Union plants	Non-union plants	All plants	Union plants	Non-union plants
All workers.....	\$0.524	\$0.579	\$0.458	9,709	5,368	4,341
Skilled.....	.709	.781	.603	2,285	1,382	903
Semiskilled <sup>1</sup> .....	.485	.537	.430	5,993	3,178	2,815
Unskilled.....	.376	.388	.361	1,431	808	623
Males.....	.584	.634	.514	6,393	3,818	2,575
Skilled.....	.709	.781	.603	2,285	1,382	903
Semiskilled.....	.556	.606	.492	3,072	1,787	1,285
Unskilled.....	.388	.395	.377	1,036	649	387
Females.....	.398	.433	.368	3,316	1,550	1,766
Semiskilled <sup>1</sup> .....	.405	.442	.373	2,921	1,391	1,530
Unskilled.....	.342	.358	.332	395	159	236

<sup>1</sup> Includes 126 females who were reported as skilled.

Not only were the country-wide averages consistently higher for union than for nonunion plants, but, as shown by table 5, the same relationship persisted in each of the more important producing areas. In the metropolitan district of New York, for example, average hourly earnings of union establishments were 68.3 cents, as against 47.6 cents for nonunion plants. The margin was much narrower in the Chicago metropolitan area, where union concerns averaged 50.6 cents, as compared with 43.7 cents for nonunion establishments. In the medium-sized and small communities, union plants averaged 53.1 cents and the average for nonunion establishments was 45.0 cents.



TABLE 5.—Average Hourly Earnings of Luggage Workers, by Metropolitan Area, Unionization, and Sex, November and December 1939

Metropolitan area	All plants			Union plants			Nonunion plants		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Average hourly earnings									
Metropolitan areas of 1,000,000 and over.....	\$0.560	\$0.621	\$0.413	\$0.593	\$0.649	\$0.434	\$0.473	\$0.533	\$0.373
New York.....	.646	.701	.449	.683	.736	.478	.476	.524	.353
Chicago.....	.489	.536	.388	.506	.539	.404	.437	.524	.366
Other.....	.526	.592	.408	.551	.628	.420	.488	.540	.387
Metropolitan areas of less than 1,000,000.....	.473	.526	.380	.531	.576	.429	.450	.503	.365
All metropolitan areas....	.524	.584	.398	.579	.634	.433	.458	.514	.368
Number of workers (weighted)									
Metropolitan areas of 1,000,000 and over.....	5,594	3,863	1,731	4,088	2,951	1,137	1,506	912	594
New York.....	1,945	1,498	447	1,591	1,248	343	354	250	104
Chicago.....	1,514	1,010	504	1,144	850	294	370	160	210
Other.....	2,135	1,355	780	1,353	853	500	782	502	280
Metropolitan areas of less than 1,000,000.....	4,115	2,530	1,585	1,280	867	413	2,835	1,663	1,172
All metropolitan areas....	9,709	6,393	3,316	5,368	3,818	1,550	4,341	2,575	1,766

Furthermore, even within restricted areas hourly earnings varied sharply. In the New York metropolitan district, for example, average hourly earnings of the union plants ranged from 35.8 cents to over \$1, and in the nonunion establishments the range was from 33.7 to 67.4 cents. Similarly, in the Chicago metropolitan area, the spread for union plants was from 42.8 to 81.7 cents, and for nonunion establishments it was from 30.4 to 56.9 cents.

In spite of wide differences in hourly earnings within restricted areas, it appears that the size of community in which the plants are located has some influence on the industry's wage structure. Due to the thin coverage it is difficult to ascertain whether or not hourly earnings varied in accordance with size of community among the several classes of communities with a population of under 1,000,000. There is, however, a marked difference in hourly earnings between all communities under 1,000,000 and those with 1,000,000 and over. Thus, union establishments in metropolitan areas of 1,000,000 and over averaged 59.3 cents, as against 53.1 cents for communities of less than 1,000,000. The respective averages for nonunion plants were 47.3 and 45.0 cents.

The difference in hourly earnings in favor of communities of 1,000,000 and over is largely a reflection of the high-wage level in the New York metropolitan area, especially in union plants. (See table 5.) A similarly high wage level was found in the Philadelphia metropolitan district, where most of the establishments included in the survey were

also unionized.<sup>14</sup> In the Chicago metropolitan area, on the other hand, the average hourly earnings were below those found in communities of less than 1,000,000, especially for union establishments.

Virtually all of the plants covered by the survey in San Francisco were union, and all of the plants included in Los Angeles were non-union. This is reflected in the average hourly earnings of the two metropolitan areas, the respective figures being 58.7 and 44.8 cents.

#### PRODUCT DIFFERENCES

As already indicated, a wide variety of products are manufactured by the luggage industry. Of the total number of workers included in the survey, almost three-fifths (59.0 percent) were found making suitcases. There were 10.8 percent working on trunks, 9.8 percent on brief cases, 3.0 percent on sample cases, and 17.4 percent on various other luggage.<sup>15</sup>

TABLE 6.—Average Hourly Earnings of Luggage Workers, by Product, Sex, and Skill, November and December 1939

Product	All workers				Males				Females		
	Total	Skilled	Semi-skilled <sup>1</sup>	Unskilled	Total	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Unskilled	Total	Semi-skilled <sup>1</sup>	Unskilled
Average hourly earnings											
All products.....	\$0.524	\$0.709	\$0.485	\$0.376	\$0.584	\$0.709	\$0.556	\$0.388	\$0.398	\$0.405	\$0.342
Trunks.....	.530	.582	.525	.433	.540	.582	.546	.433	.417	.417	.....
Suitcases.....	.547	.744	.500	.369	.609	.744	.676	.374	.417	.420	.343
Briefcases.....	.493	.709	.460	.382	.536	.709	.503	.393	.384	.393	.355
Sample cases.....	.561	.679	.505	( <sup>2</sup> )	.625	.679	.597	( <sup>2</sup> )	.406	.399	( <sup>2</sup> )
Other luggage.....	.457	.685	.437	.352	.549	.685	.527	.385	.359	.367	.326
Number of workers											
All products.....	9,709	2,285	5,993	1,431	6,393	2,285	3,072	1,036	3,316	2,921	395
Trunks.....	1,048	382	504	162	959	382	415	162	89	89	.....
Suitcases.....	5,722	1,385	3,623	714	3,773	1,385	1,797	591	1,949	1,826	123
Briefcases.....	953	184	552	217	661	184	326	151	292	226	66
Sample cases.....	292	112	136	44	202	112	70	20	90	66	24
Other luggage.....	1,694	222	1,178	294	798	222	464	112	896	714	182

<sup>1</sup> Includes 126 females (1 trunk worker, 46 suitcase workers, 13 briefcase workers, 6 sample case workers, and 60 workers employed in the manufacture of other luggage) reported as skilled.

<sup>2</sup> Coverage not sufficient to permit the presentation of an average.

Relatively few of the establishments in the luggage industry specialize in the making of one product. The tendency for the various plants to manufacture more than one product has increased in recent years.

<sup>14</sup> The average for all establishments in Philadelphia amounted to 63.6 cents, as compared with 64.6 cents in New York. Due to the fact that only 2 of the plants covered in the Philadelphia area were nonunion, no separate figures can be given for union and nonunion establishments.

<sup>15</sup> Other luggage includes Boston bags, zipper bags, radio cases, hat boxes, physician's bags, instrument cases, etc.

Due to the decline in the demand for trunks, for example, many establishments that formerly were devoted exclusively to the manufacture of trunks are now also making suitcases, Gladstone bags, and similar bags. The same thing is true of plants that are engaged primarily in the production of other luggage articles. In fact, some luggage establishments even engage in the manufacture of small leather articles.

#### OCCUPATIONAL DIFFERENCES

An analysis of hourly earnings by occupations brings to light pronounced differences within each of the skill-sex groups. The occupational variations in average hourly earnings of male employees are much more striking than among the females, chiefly because women are not represented in the highest-paid occupations. Even among the female workers, however, substantial differences are shown, particularly in the semiskilled group.

Of the skilled males, working foremen with an average of 80.4 cents an hour were the highest-paid employees. Ranking next were the suitcase assemblers, with an average of 76.1 cents. Other skilled males with relatively high earnings include heavy-sewing-machine operators (75.9 cents) and bag assemblers (73.7 cents). Trunk assemblers (trimming and finishing), with an average of 54.0 cents, had the lowest average of any of the skilled males.

The highest hourly earnings for the semiskilled males are shown for sewing-machine operators (not specified), who averaged 67.8 cents. Comparatively high earnings were likewise reported for suitcase coverers, suitcase liners, light-sewing-machine operators, and skiving-machine operators. The respective averages for these groups were 67.1, 66.1, 65.5, and 63.0 cents. The lowest average for semiskilled males—45.1 cents—is shown for hand trunk liners.

For the unskilled males, the range of average hourly earnings was from 32.2 cents for errand boys to 42.6 cents for wrappers and packers. The great majority of the unskilled occupations, however, averaged between 37 and 40 cents an hour.

The maximum spread in the occupational averages of females was only 13.2 cents, the highest average (45.6 cents) being shown for light-sewing-machine operators, a semiskilled occupation, and the lowest average (32.4 cents) for trimmers, an unskilled occupation. Of the occupations in which both males and females were employed, the average hourly earnings of the males were without exception higher than those of females. These differences were generally greatest among the semiskilled occupations. For the unskilled occupations, there was very little difference between the average hourly earnings of male and female employees.



## EXTRA RATES FOR OVERTIME WORK

The great majority of the establishments covered in the survey of the luggage industry paid extra rates for overtime work, but the practices followed differed among the various plants. In most establishments, the practice conformed with the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act, which specify time and one-half for all work in excess of 42 hours a week. In some plants, however, the provisions were more liberal, with extra rates provided after 37½ or 40 hours. The management prohibited all overtime work in a few establishments, and several others paid for overtime only on a pro rata basis.

The figures presented thus far have been based on regular rates only. As mentioned previously, this survey covers a pay-roll period in November and December, a period that is usually quite active in the luggage industry. On this account, a substantial number of employees worked overtime, for which virtually all were paid extra rates. The extra rates no doubt increased considerably the hourly earnings of some individual employees. On the other hand, if the earnings due to the extra rates paid for overtime work are distributed among all wage earners in the industry, they affect the averages only to a limited extent. Including the extra rates paid for overtime work, the average hourly earnings amounted to 53.6 cents for all workers, 60.1 cents for males, and 40.2 cents for females, which may be compared respectively with 52.4, 58.4, and 39.8 cents, as based on regular rates only.

## PART 2.—MISCELLANEOUS LEATHER PRODUCTS

*Definition of the Industry*

The miscellaneous leather products industry, as defined in this survey, included most, but not all, of the articles covered by the Census of Manufactures under "leather goods—small articles" and "leather goods not elsewhere classified." Among the products included in the survey are billfolds and wallets, key cases, cigar and cigarette cases, coin cases, calling-card cases, etc., which the Census of Manufactures classified under "leather goods—small articles." The survey also covered vanity sets, desk sets, dog furnishings, handles, corners, and straps for luggage, burnt and embossed leather, etc., which are classified by the Census of Manufactures under "leather goods not elsewhere classified." The above articles were included in the survey whether they were made of leather or materials other than leather.

Establishments that were engaged wholly or principally in the manufacture of belts for personal wear, which are classified by the Census of Manufactures under "leather goods not elsewhere classified," were not included in the survey. The survey also omitted the women's handbags and purses industry, which is a separate classification in

the Census of Manufactures. On the other hand, the survey included in the miscellaneous products industry camera cases, which are classified by the Census of Manufactures with the luggage industry.

### *Characteristics of the Industry*

With the plants manufacturing belts for personal use excluded, the miscellaneous leather products industry is somewhat smaller than the luggage industry. Although precise figures are not available, the industry probably provides employment for over 7,000 wage earners.

The miscellaneous leather products industry resembles the luggage industry in several respects. Like the luggage industry, the establishments making miscellaneous leather articles are comparatively small, with very few of the plants employing as many as 100 wage earners. Moreover, the geographical distribution of the two industries is similar. Hardly any of the establishments making miscellaneous leather products are located in the Southern States. Some are found on the Pacific Coast, especially in California. For the most part, however, the industry is concentrated in the Middle Atlantic States, East North Central States, and Massachusetts. It is also significant that the overwhelming majority of the plants manufacturing miscellaneous leather products are located in large metropolitan areas, particularly in New York.

Operations in the miscellaneous leather products industry are subject to sharp seasonal changes. Generally speaking, the busiest season occurs in the early fall in anticipation of the holiday trade. Production is customarily at low ebb during the winter months. The spring is usually characterized by a minor upturn, but this is followed by another decline during the summer.

Semiskilled workers accounted for a substantial majority of the operatives (approximately two-thirds) employed in the miscellaneous leather goods industry. The unskilled group, including somewhat more than one-fifth of the total, was next in importance. Skilled employees thus constituted only about one-eighth of the total labor force.

Equally significant is the fact that more than three-fifths of the workers in the industry were women. The predominance of females is explained largely by the high proportion of light-sewing-machine operations. These operations are principally semiskilled, and, as a result, considerably more than two-thirds of the semiskilled jobs were held by females. Moreover, female workers accounted for more than three-fourths of the unskilled occupations. By contrast, virtually all of the skilled occupations were held by males.

Unionism has made less headway in the miscellaneous leather products industry than in the luggage industry. At the time of the survey, only about one-seventh of the workers in miscellaneous leather

products were employed in plants operating under union agreements. All of the union establishments, moreover, were located in the metropolitan areas with a population of 1,000,000 and over.

### Scope of Survey

The survey of the miscellaneous leather products industry was made on the basis of a carefully selected sample of 103 establishments.<sup>16</sup> As in the survey of the luggage industry, all large plants with 100 or more employees making miscellaneous leather articles were included, but information was obtained from only about one-half of the small- and medium-sized establishments. In order to give the smaller plants their proportionate weighting, the information obtained from these establishments was weighted to include those omitted from the survey. (For further explanation, see luggage, p. 5.) The total number of workers (weighted) covered in the survey was 7,341.

Among the principal factors considered in selecting the small- and medium-sized plants for the sample were location, size of community, product, and unionization.

Table 7 presents the weighted number of workers in this industry distributed by States.

TABLE 7.—*Coverage of Survey in Miscellaneous Leather Products Industry, by States, November and December 1939*

State	Number of workers (weighted)	Percent of workers	State	Number of workers (weighted)	Percent of workers
United States .....	7,341	100.0	New Jersey .....	1,898	25.9
California .....	112	1.5	New York .....	1,910	26.0
Illinois .....	282	3.8	Ohio .....	244	3.3
Massachusetts .....	1,122	15.3	Pennsylvania .....	499	6.8
Missouri .....	350	4.8	Wisconsin .....	323	4.4
			Other States <sup>1</sup> .....	601	8.2

<sup>1</sup> Includes 2 plants in Connecticut, 1 in Maine, 2 in Maryland, 1 in Rhode Island, and 2 in Texas.

### Average Hourly Earnings

#### METHODS OF WAGE PAYMENTS

Over three-fourths of the wage earners employed in the miscellaneous leather products industry were paid on a straight time-rate basis. This method of wage payment was found in nearly all of the plants covered. In almost one-third of the establishments, all wage earners were employed on a time-rate basis. The great majority of the wage earners who were paid time rates worked on an hourly basis. A few employees, however, were paid on a weekly or monthly basis. Most of these were working foremen or maintenance employees.

Despite the predominance of time workers, most of the plants included in the survey employed some wage earners on a piece-rate

<sup>16</sup> The survey was limited to establishments employing 3 or more wage earners.



basis. The piece-rate workers constituted approximately one-fifth of the total labor force. Among the occupations that had a substantial number of workers who were paid piece-rates are handle makers, clicking-machine cutters, hand creasers, creasing- and embossing-machine operators, riveting-machine operators, spray-gun operators, sewing-machine operators, hand lacers, and pasters. Most of these occupations are classed as semiskilled.

Production-bonus systems of wage payment were reported by only a few establishments. The workers employed under this system of remuneration accounted for less than 2 percent of the total labor force.

#### HOURLY EARNINGS OF ALL WORKERS

In the miscellaneous leather products industry, hourly earnings averaged 41.9 cents in the latter part of 1939. As in the luggage industry, however, hourly earnings varied considerably among plants, the averages ranging from 29.0 to 86.5 cents. Between these extremes, the heaviest concentration was found in the 10-cent range of 32.5 and under 42.5 cents.

TABLE 8.—Percentage distribution of Miscellaneous Leather Products Workers by Average Hourly Earnings, Sex, and Skill, November and December 1939

Average hourly earnings (cents)	All workers				Males				Females		
	Total	Skilled	Semi-skilled <sup>1</sup>	Un-skilled	Total	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Un-skilled	Total	Semi-skilled <sup>1</sup>	Un-skilled
Under 25.0	0.7	0.2	0.1	2.8	0.5	0.2	0.1	2.7	0.8	0.1	2.8
25.0 and under 27.5	1.2		.7	3.2	.3			2.4	1.8	1.1	3.5
27.5 and under 30.0	.8	.6	.6	1.7	.4	.6	.1	1.1	1.1	.9	1.8
Exactly 30.0	29.3	2.7	27.7	50.0	16.5	2.7	20.0	38.2	37.6	31.6	53.6
30.1 and under 32.5	3.3	1.0	3.9	2.9	2.0	1.0	2.0	4.3	4.2	4.8	2.5
32.5 and under 35.0	5.1	1.5	5.6	5.9	3.3	1.5	4.1	4.3	6.4	6.3	6.4
35.0 and under 37.5	16.2	2.8	18.3	17.8	6.4	2.8	7.2	12.1	22.5	23.5	19.5
37.5 and under 40.0	6.4	4.0	7.4	4.8	7.0	4.0	8.4	8.8	6.0	6.0	3.6
40.0 and under 42.5	6.7	3.6	8.3	3.6	6.3	3.6	7.7	6.7	7.0	8.5	2.6
42.5 and under 47.5	7.5	7.3	9.0	3.3	9.3	7.3	10.7	8.3	6.4	8.1	1.8
47.5 and under 52.5	5.7	9.3	6.1	2.4	9.8	9.3	11.1	5.4	3.1	3.7	1.4
52.5 and under 57.5	3.5	8.7	3.4	.8	6.5	8.7	6.2	2.4	1.6	2.1	.3
57.5 and under 62.5	2.4	6.4	2.2	.4	4.5	6.4	4.1	1.3	1.0	1.3	.2
62.5 and under 67.5	2.8	10.6	2.1	.1	6.4	10.6	5.1	.5	.4	.6	
67.5 and under 72.5	1.4	6.2	.9	.1	3.5	6.2	2.7	.5	(2)	(2)	
72.5 and under 77.5	1.7	8.0	1.0	.1	4.2	8.0	2.9	.5	.1	.2	
77.5 and under 82.5	.8	2.9	.7		2.0	2.9	1.9		(2)	.1	
82.5 and under 87.5	1.2	5.8	.6	.1	2.9	5.8	1.7	.5	(2)	.1	
87.5 and under 92.5	1.0	6.4	.3		2.5	6.4	.7		(2)	.1	
92.5 and under 100.0	.7	3.8	.4		1.8	3.8	1.0		(2)	(2)	
100.0 and under 110.0	.8	3.9	.5		2.1	3.9	1.6				
110.0 and under 120.0	.3	1.5	.1		.7	1.5	.3				
120.0 and under 130.0	.3	1.7	.1		.7	1.7	.3				
130.0 and over	.2	1.1	(2)		.4	1.1	.1				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers (weighted)	7,841	943	4,826	1,572	2,891	943	1,575	378	4,450	3,251	1,199
Average hourly earnings	\$0.419	\$0.652	\$0.401	\$0.329	\$0.520	\$0.652	\$0.478	\$0.360	\$0.351	\$0.363	\$0.319

<sup>1</sup> Includes 131 females who were reported as skilled.

<sup>2</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Hourly earnings of individual employees, of course, show a much wider dispersion. (See table 8.) Even with the extreme classes excluded, the range of individual hourly earnings was from 25.0 cents to \$1.30. It is significant, however, that a substantial majority of the workers were concentrated in the lower wage classes. Earnings of less than 40 cents an hour, for example, are shown for 63.0 percent of the employees, and 40.4 percent received under 35 cents.

Although, roughly, 2 out of every 5 wage earners in the miscellaneous leather products industry were paid 40 cents an hour and over, only about 1 out of every 10 earned 62.5 cents and over, and no more than a small fraction (1.6 percent) received \$1.00 and over.

#### VARIATIONS BY SEX AND SKILL

As in the luggage industry, a large part of the dispersion of hourly earnings in the miscellaneous leather products industry is explained by the variations in the wage levels of the different groups of workers. For the male employees, the averages were 65.2 cents for skilled, 47.8 cents for semiskilled, and 36.0 cents for unskilled. Earnings of female workers averaged 36.3 cents for semiskilled and 31.9 cents for unskilled.

Hourly earnings of 62.5 cents and over were confined almost exclusively to the skilled and semiskilled males. For skilled males, in fact, the principal concentration, accounting for one-tenth (10.6 percent) of the total, occurred in the class of 62.5 and under 67.5 cents. Moreover, slightly over two-fifths (41.3 percent) of the skilled males were paid 67.5 cents and over. Hourly earnings of semiskilled males were concentrated at a considerably lower level, but 18.3 percent averaged 62.5 cents and over.

Looking at the other end of the distribution, only 6.0 percent of the skilled males earned below 35 cents an hour, and 12.8 percent received less than 40 cents. For semiskilled males, the respective figures were 26.3 and 41.9 percent.

Among the semiskilled females, who account for more than two-fifths of the wage earners in the industry, three fourths (75.2 percent) had hourly earnings of less than 40 cents, and 44.8 percent received under 35.0 cents. Of the unskilled females, another important group, all except 6.3 percent received below 40 cents, and 70.6 percent earned less than 35 cents. Only about one-fourth (26.1 percent) of the unskilled males earned as much as 40 cents and over, and more than one-half averaged less than 35.0 cents.

#### HOURLY EARNINGS IN RELATION TO FAIR LABOR STANDARDS ACT

Only a small minority of the wage earners in the miscellaneous leather products industry were paid less than 30 cents an hour, the minimum rate now in effect for workers engaged in the production of

goods for interstate commerce under the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. For the industry as a whole, no more than 2.7 percent of the employees received below the minimum. Most of the employees who were paid less than 30 cents were unskilled males and females.<sup>17</sup>

Although relatively few employees were paid less than 30 cents an hour, there were heavy concentrations at or near the minimum. This is especially true of the more important groups of workers. For the semiskilled females, the most important group numerically, almost one-third (31.6 percent) were earning exactly 30 cents. Furthermore, hourly earnings of exactly 30 cents are shown for 53.6 percent of the unskilled females, 38.2 percent of the unskilled males, and 20.0 percent of the semiskilled males.

Table 9 shows the cumulative percentage distribution of workers according to average hourly earnings in groups of plants having approximately the same wage level, thus indicating the relative number of employees that would be affected in the various groups of establishments by any minimum between 30 and 40 cents that might be established under the Fair Labor Standards Act.

TABLE 9.—Cumulative Percentage Distribution of Miscellaneous Leather Products Workers, by Average Hourly Earnings and Plants, November and December 1939

Average hourly earnings	Plants having average hourly earnings (in cents) of—												
	Under 32.5	32.5 and under 35.0	35.0 and under 37.5	37.5 and under 40.0	40.0 and under 42.5	42.5 and under 45.0	45.0 and under 47.5	47.5 and under 50.0	50.0 and under 52.5	52.5 and under 55.0	55.0 and under 60.0	60.0 and under 67.5	75.0 and over
Under 25.0 cents.....	2.6	2.6							0.8	0.4			
Under 27.5 cents.....	9.0	6.2	0.4	0.2	0.2				.8	.4	1.9	0.4	
Under 30.0 cents.....	10.3	7.8	.7	2.5	.7	0.3		1.1	1.2	.8	1.9	1.3	
Under 30.1 cents.....	84.7	62.0	21.5	44.3	27.8	21.3	5.6	10.0	9.2	2.6	17.4	12.0	
Under 32.5 cents.....	90.7	66.2	23.4	48.4	34.1	23.9	8.7	11.1	10.7	3.0	23.2	12.0	
Under 35.0 cents.....	92.2	74.5	26.3	55.2	40.4	30.6	18.0	13.3	15.1	3.4	23.2	17.6	
Under 37.5 cents.....	93.1	84.4	80.6	64.8	54.8	42.8	26.1	32.8	26.2	8.7	31.9	21.5	
Under 40.0 cents.....	94.0	87.0	85.2	69.8	62.2	53.3	37.3	42.2	33.5	23.4	33.8	25.4	3.0
Under 42.5 cents.....	95.3	90.8	88.3	77.2	71.7	62.3	49.9	46.6	41.1	36.3	38.6	33.2	3.0
Under 47.5 cents.....	96.4	94.6	91.4	84.1	81.1	73.2	66.7	60.0	52.9	49.6	42.4	39.7	6.0
Under 52.5 cents.....	97.9	96.7	95.9	90.1	86.8	80.4	74.8	70.6	63.6	59.4	48.2	44.9	12.1
Under 57.5 cents.....	98.6	97.7	97.4	93.4	89.7	83.9	82.7	80.6	69.9	66.1	54.9	54.0	12.1
Under 62.5 cents.....	98.6	98.2	97.9	95.8	92.1	86.5	88.9	83.4	74.9	72.4	56.8	58.3	12.1
Under 67.5 cents.....	98.6	98.5	98.3	96.5	95.3	91.5	92.3	85.6	81.0	79.4	69.4	66.9	15.1
Under 72.5 cents.....	99.2	98.8	98.6	96.7	95.3	93.5	95.4	87.8	86.0	83.6	74.2	69.5	15.1
Under 77.5 cents.....	99.2	99.1	99.1	97.2	97.1	94.8	97.1	91.1	91.5	87.8	80.0	74.2	24.2
Under 82.5 cents.....	99.2	99.1	99.1	97.5	98.5	95.7	98.2	92.8	92.6	90.3	83.8	75.9	27.2
Under 87.5 cents.....	99.6	99.3	99.5	98.6	98.7	96.9	98.8	96.1	94.3	93.5	87.6	79.8	39.3
Under 92.5 cents.....	99.6	99.6	99.9	99.1	98.9	98.1	99.4	96.1	96.6	94.2	90.5	86.3	60.6
Under 100.0 cents.....	99.8	99.8	100.0	99.3	99.4	99.4	99.7	96.1	97.7	95.6	92.4	88.0	78.8
Under 110.0 cents.....	99.8	100.0		100.0	99.6	99.4	99.7	96.7	99.4	98.8	94.3	92.3	97.0
Under 120.0 cents.....	99.8				99.8	99.7	100.0	98.9	99.4	99.2	96.2	94.0	100.0
Under 130.0 cents.....	99.8				100.0	100.0		100.0	99.8	99.6	98.1	97.4	
Number of workers (weighted)...	534	1,156	1,087	888	884	763	356	180	523	568	104	232	66

<sup>17</sup> It should be noted that about two-fifths of the employees receiving less than 30 cents an hour came from establishments that claimed to be engaged in intrastate commerce only.



## DIFFERENCES BETWEEN UNION AND NONUNION PLANTS

All of the union establishments covered in the survey were located in the New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia metropolitan districts. Consequently, any comparison in hourly earnings between union and nonunion plants must be confined to these areas.

Restricted in this way, the hourly earnings in union establishments were higher than those in nonunion plants. Against an average of 50.0 cents for all wage earners in union establishments in New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia, the average for all workers in nonunion plants in the same communities was 41.3 cents.

In the New York metropolitan area, furthermore, there was a sufficient number of union and nonunion plants to make a comparison, and the advantage was with the union establishments. Thus, the average hourly earnings for all workers was 50.0 cents in union plants, as against 41.4 cents for nonunion concerns.

## RELATION OF OTHER FACTORS TO HOURLY EARNINGS

As in the luggage industry, there are no well-defined geographical differences in hourly earnings in the miscellaneous leather products industry. In each of the regions where the industry is located, there is considerable scattering of the average hourly earnings in the various plants. Both the high- and low-paid establishments are widely dispersed geographically. Moreover, even within restricted areas, hourly earnings vary conspicuously.

Unlike the luggage industry, there is no evidence of any relationship between size of community and hourly earnings in the miscellaneous leather products industry. Taking the nonunion establishments, the average for all workers amounted to 40.5 cents for metropolitan areas with a population of 1,000,000 and over, which may be compared with 40.7 cents for those with less than 1,000,000. However, there was considerable difference in hourly earnings among the various communities composing the group of metropolitan districts of 1,000,000 and over. The averages for the New York and Philadelphia metropolitan areas, for example, were respectively 41.4 and 42.1 cents, which may be compared with 37.0 cents for the Chicago, 37.4 cents for the Boston, and 33.9 cents for the St. Louis metropolitan districts. In the San Francisco and Los Angeles metropolitan areas together the average was approximately 48 cents. Due to the fact that a relatively small part of the industry is located in communities with less than 1,000,000, it is impossible to present any figures on a detailed basis for these communities.

Compared to the luggage industry, there is even a greater variety of articles manufactured by establishments in the miscellaneous leather products industry. On the basis of this survey, it was found that approximately two-thirds of the employees working on miscellaneous leather articles were engaged in making flat goods, such as billfolds, and wallets, key cases, calling-card cases, etc.

#### OCCUPATIONAL DIFFERENCES

In the miscellaneous leather products industry the highest average—82.0 cents—is shown for working foremen. Hourly earnings of the other occupational groups among males lagged far behind.

The occupational averages for the semiskilled males ranged from 39.4 to 62.1 cents an hour, the highest average being reported for sewing-machine operators and the lowest for handle maker's helpers. For most of the occupations, however, the spread was from 40 to 50 cents. Apart from sewing-machine operators, the semiskilled occupations averaging more than 50 cents were choppers (mallet and die), clicking-machine cutters, hand pasters (flat goods), and skiving-machine operators.

With the single exception of edge colorers, who averaged 45.3 cents an hour, all of the unskilled male occupations averaged under 40 cents. The lowest average—31.2 cents—was shown for errand boys. Hourly earnings of less than 35 cents were likewise reported for floor workers (including general helpers), hand pasters' helpers, and the miscellaneous unskilled males.

The occupational averages of females ranged from 26.3 cents an hour for learners to 45.4 cents for working foreladies. Hourly earnings above the 40-cent level, however, were restricted exclusively to the few females who were classed as skilled. Among the semiskilled females, the highest average (38.2 cents) is shown for hand lacers and the lowest (34.1 cents) for skiving-machine operators.

#### EXTRA RATES FOR OVERTIME WORK

By far the great majority of the plants included in the survey of the miscellaneous leather products industry paid time and one-half for all work in excess of 42 hours a week, which conforms with the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Several establishments, however, were more liberal in their overtime provisions. Some plants paid for overtime work on a pro rata basis, and a few establishments prohibited overtime work altogether.

The figures presented in this report have been based on regular rates only, the averages amounting to 41.9 cents for all workers in the industry, 52.0 cents for males, and 35.1 cents for females. Including the extra rates paid for overtime work, the respective averages are 42.8, 53.3, and 35.7 cents.

## WAGES AND HOURS IN BRITISH COLUMBIA, 1939

IN 1939 the average weekly wage for adult male industrial employees in British Columbia was \$26.80—an increase of 10 cents as compared with the weekly wage reported for 1938, but \$2.40 below that for 1929—according to the annual report of the Department of Labor of that Province for the year 1939.

The average wage of adult males in the week of greatest employment ordinarily means a full week's wage. In 1939 these weekly wages ranged from \$19.75 in the cigar and tobacco industry to \$34.34 in printing and publishing and \$39.23 in jewelry manufacturing.

Many industries were employing substantial numbers of men in 1939 at less than \$19, food products reporting 30.82 percent of 10,510 adult males in that wage group; the metal trades, 23.45 percent of 4,768 men; and the lumber industries, 5.98 percent of 27,388 men. Only 2.27 percent of the 8,016 men engaged in metal mining, however, were reported as receiving such low wages.

The average weekly working hours for all industrial employees covered (male and female) in 1939 were 47.80, as compared with 46.84 in the preceding year and 48.25 in 1929.<sup>1</sup>

Of 94,045 employees reported by employers, 88.68 percent worked 48 hours or less per week in 1939, 5.42 percent between 48 and 54 hours per week, and 5.90 percent, over 54 hours per week. In five industries—coastal shipping, food-products manufacture, metal mining, oil refining, and smelting—the average weekly hours in 1929 were over 51, reaching almost 54 in metal mining. In 1939 in only 2 industries were the average weekly hours 50 or more—metal mining, for which 50.19 hours were reported, and logging railways, on which the average weekly hours were 50.36.

The table following gives average weekly wages of adult males for the week of greatest employment, and average weekly hours of work for all industrial employees covered (male and female), by industries, in British Columbia, for 1929, 1938, and 1939.

The very considerable reduction in average weekly hours from 1938 to 1939 in the explosive, chemical, etc., group, was due to the fact that one firm was not in operation in the latter year. In pulp and paper manufacture, the increase in working hours may be accounted for by the short-time operation of one firm in 1938 which was on full time in 1939.

<sup>1</sup> Figures for 1929 are from British Columbia, Department of Labor, Annual Report for Fiscal Year Ended December 31, 1932, Victoria, 1933.



Average Weekly Wages and Hours of Work in British Columbia, 1929, 1938, and 1939<sup>1</sup>

Industry group	Average full week's wage (adult males only)			Average weekly hours (all industrial employees covered)		
	1939	1938	1929 <sup>2</sup>	1939	1938	1929 <sup>2</sup>
Breweries.....	\$27.98	\$27.42	\$27.70	45.41	44.53	46.77
Builders' materials.....	23.23	22.82	28.04	45.07	44.63	46.96
Cigars and tobacco.....	19.75	13.00	26.58	40.40	24.00	44.40
Coal mining.....	29.39	28.20	30.18	47.92	47.93	48.03
Coastal shipping.....	29.35	32.93	32.84	49.42	48.54	51.05
Contracting.....	26.12	25.81	30.57	43.82	43.85	45.16
Explosives and chemicals.....	25.75	24.20	24.61	42.57	47.20	46.04
Food products.....	23.23	23.70	26.56	47.59	47.43	51.01
Garment making.....	24.25	23.15	28.68	43.69	43.22	44.87
Housefurnishings.....	22.53	20.80	26.74	44.12	44.33	45.53
Jewelry manufacturing.....	39.23	38.95	36.61	40.75	42.01	44.24
Laundries, cleaning and dyeing.....	23.19	23.33	23.16	44.06	44.14	46.62
Leather and fur-goods manufacturing.....	21.19	22.23	29.03	44.27	44.31	46.70
Lumber industries:	27.14	26.59	26.54			
Logging.....				48.47	48.38	47.31
Logging railways.....				50.30	49.51	48.61
Lumber dealers.....				45.80	44.67	47.63
Planing mills.....				48.71	48.37	49.14
Sawmills.....				47.98	47.99	49.12
Shingle mills.....				47.57	47.46	47.86
Metal mining.....	30.86	30.48	35.24	50.19	50.30	53.96
Metal trades.....	25.38	25.09	29.50	44.93	45.00	45.87
Oil refining.....	28.97	28.68	30.50	47.69	48.81	51.61
Paint manufacturing.....	22.09	22.78	25.58	44.10	44.11	45.00
Printing and publishing.....	34.34	34.19	40.81	42.64	43.55	45.44
Pulp and paper manufacturing.....	26.54	26.36	27.87	47.96	44.29	48.35
Shipbuilding.....	28.55	28.76	30.25	44.08	44.05	44.15
Smelting.....	25.57	24.80	33.09	47.89	47.95	52.72
Street railways, gas, water, power, etc.....	28.63	27.78	30.70	45.11	45.23	44.61
Wood manufacturing (not elsewhere specified).....	23.22	22.68	25.49	46.39	46.29	47.03

<sup>1</sup> In the article on wages and hours in British Columbia in the November 1939 Monthly Labor Review, the table heading erroneously gave the average weekly hours as for adult males only. The figures on hours were for all industrial employees covered (male and female).

<sup>2</sup> 1929 figures are from British Columbia, Department of Labor, Annual Report for the Year Ended December 31, 1932, Victoria, 1933.

<sup>3</sup> As given in report; probably should be 42.00.

## WEEKLY WAGES IN MALT FACTORIES OF HESSEN, GERMANY

THE Labor Trustee of the industrial district of Hessen, Germany, has fixed the following weekly wages for workers employed in the malt factories, effective May 10, 1940:<sup>1</sup>

Semiskilled workers, aged—		Weekly wage	
		Locality I	Locality II
18 to 19 years.....	Marks.....	33. 0	28. 0
20 to 21 years.....	do.....	36. 8	31. 3
22 to 23 years.....	do.....	41. 0	35. 0
24 years and over.....	do.....	46. 0	40. 0
Workers' helpers, aged—			
18 to 19 years.....	do.....	30. 0	25. 0
20 to 21 years.....	do.....	33. 0	28. 0
22 to 23 years.....	do.....	38. 0	32. 3
24 years and over.....	do.....	44. 0	38. 0

<sup>1</sup> Reichsarbeitsministerium, Reichsarbeitsblatt (Berlin), June 25, 1940, Part IV, pp. 701-704.

Skilled workers receive 10 percent over the above wages for semi-skilled, in accordance with the age group and wage locality. Female workers receive 70 percent of the wages for helpers, according to age.

Extra rates are paid for overtime, and for work on Sundays, holidays, and at night. For overtime, 25 percent extra is paid; for night work, 15 percent extra (but if the night work is outside the regular work, then 33½ percent extra); and for Sunday and holiday work, 33½ percent extra (but if it is outside the regular work, then 50 percent extra). For work on May 1, Easter, Whitsunday, or Christmas, double time is paid.

## Building Operations

### RESIDENTIAL CONSTRUCTION, FIRST HALF OF 1940

#### *Summary*

ESTIMATES based upon building permits indicate that approximately 241,000 new dwelling units were provided for families in nonfarm areas during the first half of 1940. Of these, 99,000 were provided during the first quarter and 142,000 during the second. The half-year total for 1940 represents an 8-percent increase over the corresponding period of 1939. The similar comparison for the second quarter alone shows an 11-percent increase.

The permit valuation of the 241,000 new homes is estimated at nearly \$825,000,000. Included in this total are \$65,000,000 public funds allocated for low-rent housing projects sponsored by the United States Housing Authority.

Projects financed by the USHA contained approximately 9 percent of all new dwelling units during the first half of both 1940 and 1939. Although the number of such units increased somewhat from the first to the second quarter, the second quarter of 1940 showed a large drop as compared with the corresponding period of 1939.

#### *Scope of Report*

The "nonfarm area" of the United States consists of areas defined as either urban or rural nonfarm. Urban communities are incorporated places with a 1930 population of 2,500 or more. There is also a small group of towns specially classified as urban. The rural nonfarm area includes all incorporated places of less than 2,500 population in addition to all unincorporated areas, excluding farms. These classifications will be based upon the results of the 1940 census when such data are available.

The estimates of new residential construction presented here are derived from a large sample of building-permit reports. The Bureau of Labor Statistics began collecting such data as early as 1920, at first including only the larger cities. The coverage of the sample has since then been steadily extended until it now includes more than 2,000 cities of 1,000 population or over. Reporting cities have an aggregate population of approximately 61,000,000. In addition to this sample of cities, the Bureau receives building-permit reports covering the unin-



incorporated areas of a small number of counties. The fact that no reports at all are available regarding construction on farms explains the restriction of the present estimates to nonfarm areas.

### *New Dwellings, First 6 Months of 1940*

Activities of builders throughout the nonfarm areas of the United States during the first 6 months of 1940 added more than 241,000 new dwelling units to the existing supply of housing facilities. This represents an increase of 8 percent over the number provided during the corresponding period of 1939. It is worth noting in this connection that 1939 was the best year for residential construction in a decade. Thus, if the same high levels hold during the second half of 1940, the year estimates will show nearly as many new homes this year as were built during 1929.

The increased rate of building was reflected in the building permits of all groups except cities with population over 500,000. The 47,000 units built in these largest cities fell more than 5,000 short of equaling the number during the corresponding period of 1939. Of the population groups in the urban classification, cities within the 100,000 to 500,000 range made the most important increase. The next largest gain over the corresponding period of 1939, and largest on the percentage basis, was made in cities in the 5,000 to 10,000 group. Residential construction activity in rural nonfarm areas also increased greatly.

New apartment-house construction failed to share in the general advance. With only urban places of less than 10,000 population providing more apartment units, the United States totals for this type dropped more than 20 percent from 1939 levels. One- and two-family dwellings, however, were provided at rates of 14 and 37 percent higher during the first half of 1940 than during the corresponding period of 1939. As a result of the unequal rates of change, the one- and two-family units rose from 74 and 5 percent, respectively, of all new units in the first half of 1939, to 79 and 6 percent in the more recent period. Apartment construction experienced a corresponding drop in importance from 21 percent of the total to only 15 percent. These trends can be seen in more detail in table 1.

Following usual seasonal tendencies, permits issued for residential buildings during the second quarter of 1940 showed a sharp rise over the previous 3-month period. In terms of dwellings units provided, this meant a rise from 99,000 new units during the first quarter, to 142,000 during the second. Here again there was a fall in the number of new apartment units and sharp rises in numbers of one- and two-family units. The second-quarter total also represents an 11-percent increase over the corresponding period of 1939.

TABLE 1.—*New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, First 6 Months of 1939 and 1940, by Population Group and Type of Dwelling*

Population group	All types		1-family		2-family <sup>1</sup>		Multifamily <sup>2</sup>	
	First half of—		First half of—		First half of—		First half of—	
	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939
Total nonfarm.....	241,315	223,511	190,255	166,483	14,526	10,567	36,554	46,461
Percent of change.....	+8.0		+14.3		+37.5		-21.4	
Total urban.....	175,511	165,042	128,388	112,499	12,562	8,650	34,561	43,893
500,000 and over.....	47,217	52,772	24,180	23,925	3,399	1,832	19,638	27,015
100,000 to 500,000.....	39,107	35,138	27,500	23,981	3,870	2,682	7,737	8,475
50,000 to 100,000.....	14,161	12,405	11,252	9,749	1,391	927	1,518	1,729
25,000 to 50,000.....	16,833	14,318	13,664	11,105	1,512	850	1,657	2,363
10,000 to 25,000.....	26,295	22,625	23,612	19,369	1,175	1,156	1,508	2,100
5,000 to 10,000.....	18,335	15,344	15,747	13,045	724	655	1,864	1,644
2,500 to 5,000.....	13,563	12,440	12,433	11,325	491	548	639	567
Rural nonfarm.....	65,804	58,469	61,867	53,984	1,964	1,917	1,973	2,568

<sup>1</sup> Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.<sup>2</sup> Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

All geographic divisions except the West South Central showed increases during the second quarter as compared with the first. The East and West North Central States more than doubled their output of new homes, weather conditions being the prime factor. An increase would also have been shown in the West South Central States had it not been for several large publicly financed projects authorized during the first quarter.

Comparing numbers of new dwelling units provided during the second quarters of 1940 and 1939, all but two sections of the country had increases. The West South Central and Middle Atlantic States declined, both with drops in numbers of apartment units. Table 2 presents geographic-division estimates of the numbers of new dwelling units of various types provided during the first and second quarters of 1940 and the second quarter of 1939.

TABLE 2.—*New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, Second Quarter of 1939 and First and Second Quarters of 1940, by Geographic Division and Type of Dwelling*

Geographic division	All types			1-family			2-family <sup>1</sup>			Multifamily <sup>2</sup>		
	Second quarter 1940	First quarter 1940	Second quarter 1939	Second quarter 1940	First quarter 1940	Second quarter 1939	Second quarter 1940	First quarter 1940	Second quarter 1939	Second quarter 1940	First quarter 1940	Second quarter 1939
All divisions.....	142,402	98,913	128,157	116,112	74,143	90,526	8,671	5,855	5,844	17,619	18,915	22,787
New England.....	5,907	3,253	4,594	5,248	2,351	3,874	246	227	276	413	675	444
Middle Atlantic.....	21,001	19,010	24,218	12,781	8,089	12,395	913	738	821	7,307	10,183	11,002
East North Central.....	27,922	11,248	20,680	25,202	10,268	18,936	1,929	559	668	791	421	1,076
West North Central.....	10,972	4,799	10,471	10,194	4,281	9,360	354	160	289	424	358	822
South Atlantic.....	25,009	17,507	19,724	18,831	13,925	15,468	1,937	1,826	1,018	4,241	1,756	3,238
East South Central.....	8,103	4,751	8,085	6,207	4,145	6,112	839	452	458	1,057	154	1,515
West South Central.....	11,555	13,148	13,557	10,258	10,056	10,955	991	673	1,013	306	2,419	1,589
Mountain.....	5,960	3,856	4,838	5,267	3,227	4,099	207	197	256	486	432	483
Pacific.....	25,973	21,341	21,990	22,124	17,801	18,327	1,255	1,023	1,045	2,594	2,517	2,618

<sup>1</sup> Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.<sup>2</sup> Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

### New Housing, by Source of Funds

During the first 6 months of both 1940 and 1939 approximately 9 percent of all new nonfarm housing facilities were financed with United States Housing Authority funds. These low-rent units were of a variety of types—row houses, flats, apartments, and combinations of flats and row houses. As best fitted into the classification used by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the 21,486 USHA family accommodations for which permits were issued in the first half of 1940 consisted of 9,202 one-family units, 4,024 two-family units, and 8,260 multifamily units. The corresponding distribution for the first half of 1939 was 8,754 one-family, 1,310 two-family, and 9,473 multifamily, a total of 19,537 units. More than three-fourths of these were concentrated in cities having a population over 100,000.

More new privately financed homes were provided during the first half of 1940 in cities with a population over 500,000 than in any other urban group. New York City alone was responsible for 16,982 new family accommodations financed by private builders. This exceeded the totals for all cities in each of three population groups shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, First 6 Months of 1939 and 1940, by Population Group and Source of Funds*

Population group	Total		Source of funds			
			Private		USHA	
	First half of—		First half of—		First half of—	
	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939
Total nonfarm.....	241,315	223,511	219,829	203,974	21,486	19,537
Percentage change.....	+8.0		+7.8		+10.0	
Total urban.....	175,511	165,042	154,529	145,505	20,982	19,537
500,000 and over.....	47,217	52,772	42,363	47,685	4,854	5,087
100,000 to 500,000.....	39,107	35,138	27,433	23,611	11,674	11,527
50,000 to 100,000.....	14,161	12,405	12,433	10,852	1,728	1,553
25,000 to 50,000.....	16,833	14,318	15,297	13,306	1,536	1,012
10,000 to 25,000.....	26,295	22,625	25,309	22,267	986	358
5,000 to 10,000.....	18,335	15,344	18,131	15,344	204	0
2,500 to 5,000.....	13,563	12,440	13,563	12,440	0	0
Rural nonfarm.....	65,804	58,469	65,300	58,469	504	0

<sup>1</sup> Includes 240-unit project financed with New York City municipal funds.

Not all parts of the country took advantage of opportunities to obtain Federal funds for low-rent housing projects. There were no such projects in the West North Central or Pacific States during the second quarter of 1940, and only one in each of these sections during the first quarter. The South and Middle Atlantic States provided more new homes under the United States Housing Authority program during the first half of 1940 than any other division.



Lack of funds had its effect upon the number of new projects sponsored by the USHA. Although there was an increase in the number of USHA units from the first to the second quarter of 1940, the total for the second quarter dropped considerably as compared with the corresponding period of 1939. This tendency for publicly financed housing to fall below 1939 levels may be offset during the second half of 1940 by allocation of Federal funds for defense housing projects.

The numbers of new dwelling units provided by new housekeeping construction during the first and second quarters of 1940 and the second quarter of 1939, are shown in table 4, by source of funds and geographic division.

TABLE 4.—*New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, Second Quarter of 1939 and First and Second Quarters of 1940, by Source of Funds and Geographic Division*

Geographic division	Total			Source of funds					
	Second quarter 1940	First quarter 1940	Second quarter 1939	Private			USHA		
				Second quarter 1940	First quarter 1940	Second quarter 1939	Second quarter 1940	First quarter 1940	Second quarter 1939
All divisions.....	142,402	98,913	128,157	131,331	88,498	113,436	11,071	10,415	14,721
New England.....	5,907	3,253	4,594	5,707	2,286	4,594	200	967	0
Middle Atlantic.....	21,001	19,010	24,218	18,239	17,316	19,725	2,762	1,694	4,493
East North Central.....	27,922	11,248	20,680	25,593	10,667	18,844	2,329	581	1,836
West North Central.....	10,972	4,799	10,471	10,972	4,527	9,949	0	272	522
South Atlantic.....	25,009	17,507	19,724	22,465	15,111	17,548	2,544	2,396	2,176
East South Central.....	8,103	4,751	8,085	5,986	4,202	4,838	2,117	549	3,247
West South Central.....	11,555	13,148	13,557	10,986	9,921	11,228	569	3,227	2,329
Mountain.....	5,960	3,856	4,838	5,410	3,631	4,838	550	225	0
Pacific.....	25,973	21,341	21,990	25,973	20,837	21,872	0	504	118

<sup>1</sup> Includes 240-unit project financed with New York City municipal funds.

### *Estimated Permit Valuations*

The permit valuation of the 241,000 new dwelling units during the first half of 1940 is estimated at nearly \$825,000,000. The new privately financed dwellings accounted for approximately \$760,000,000 of this total, the publicly financed, \$65,000,000. As indicated in table 5, the values shown for new public housing are contract values and therefore equivalent to construction costs. Private builders, however, do not attempt to make their permit valuation approximate costs, such valuations in general being lower than costs.

New dwellings in the East North Central States during the first half of 1940 were valued at \$166,000,000. Other divisions having permit valuations over \$100,000,000 were the Middle Atlantic (\$161,000,000), the Pacific (\$158,000,000), and the South Atlantic (\$132,000,000). The order of divisions here is somewhat changed from the rankings for new dwelling units inasmuch as values per unit vary from one division to another.

The South Atlantic and Middle Atlantic States each awarded contracts totaling over \$13,000,000 for construction on United States Housing Authority projects. In proportion to the total for all new housing, however, the East and West South Central States exceeded all the others. USHA funds represented 27 percent of total permit valuations in the East South Central States and 18 percent in the West South Central. The \$65,000,000 USHA total for the United States was only 8 percent of the nonfarm total. The estimated permit valuations for new private construction and the contract values of USHA housing during the first half of 1940 are presented in table 5.

TABLE 5.—Permit Valuation of New Dwellings in Nonfarm Areas During First 6 Months of 1940, by Source of Funds and Geographic Division

Geographic division	Estimated permit valuation		
	Total	Private	USHA <sup>1</sup>
All divisions.....	\$824, 476, 000	\$759, 885, 000	\$64, 591, 000
New England.....	38, 276, 000	34, 326, 000	3, 950, 000
Middle Atlantic.....	161, 223, 000	148, 147, 000	13, 076, 000
East North Central.....	165, 826, 000	156, 057, 000	9, 769, 000
West North Central.....	50, 366, 000	49, 474, 000	892, 000
South Atlantic.....	131, 574, 000	117, 784, 000	13, 790, 000
East South Central.....	28, 667, 000	21, 070, 000	7, 597, 000
West South Central.....	65, 031, 000	53, 121, 000	11, 910, 000
Mountain.....	25, 541, 000	23, 171, 000	2, 370, 000
Pacific.....	157, 972, 000	156, 735, 000	1, 237, 000

<sup>1</sup> Contract values.

## SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, AUGUST 1940 <sup>1</sup>

THE August dollar volume of all types of building construction, as measured by the value of permits issued, increased 2.5 percent over the July figure. Gains and losses were evenly divided among the various city-size groups, with the largest gain reported in the group of cities having a population of 500,000 and over. Permit valuations of new residential construction showed a decrease of 1.6 percent from July to August. Gains in six city-size groups were more than offset by losses in two groups. Valuations of new nonresidential construction, however, increased 12.4 percent over the preceding month. Additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures decreased 8.2 percent from July to August.

Permit valuations of all classes of building construction rose 25.2 percent as compared with August 1939. New residential construction increased only 0.6 percent over the year period. The volume of

<sup>1</sup> More detailed information by geographic divisions and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, August 1940," copies of which will be furnished upon request.

new nonresidential construction, with an increase of 110.3 percent, was more than double that of the corresponding month in 1939. Additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures declined 6.2 percent from August 1939.

### *Comparison of August 1940 with July 1940 and August 1939*

A summary of building construction in 2,137 identical cities in August 1940, with percentage changes from July 1940 and August 1939 is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued in 2,137 Identical Cities, August 1940*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Permit valuation		
	August 1940	Percentage change from—		August 1940	Percentage change from—	
		July 1940	August 1939		July 1940	August 1939
All construction.....	78, 887	+1. 8	+3. 9	\$243, 963, 395	+2. 5	+25. 2
New residential.....	24, 635	+3. 7	+11. 1	116, 865, 886	-1. 6	+6
New nonresidential.....	13, 725	+3. 6	+6. 3	96, 111, 163	+12. 4	+110. 3
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	40, 527	+1	-8	30, 986, 346	-8. 2	-6. 2

A summary of permit valuations of housekeeping dwellings and the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings in 2,137 identical cities, having a population of 1,000 and over, is shown in table 2 for August 1940 with percentage changes from July 1940 and August 1939.

TABLE 2.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Family-Dwelling Units Provided in 2,137 Identical Cities, August 1940*

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	August 1940	Percentage change from—		August 1940	Percentage change from—	
		July 1940	August 1939		July 1940	August 1939
All types.....	\$114, 802, 446	-0. 7	( <sup>1</sup> )	32, 391	+1. 1	+4. 6
1-family.....	86, 143, 273	-1. 2	+9. 2	22, 254	+2. 7	+7. 9
2-family <sup>2</sup> .....	4, 646, 861	-2. 3	+34. 0	1, 742	-3. 3	+32. 5
Multifamily <sup>3</sup> .....	24, 012, 312	+1. 4	-25. 9	8, 395	-1. 9	-6. 8

<sup>1</sup> Decrease less than a tenth of 1 percent.

<sup>2</sup> Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

<sup>3</sup> Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.



### Construction During First 8 Months, 1939 and 1940

Cumulative totals for the first 8 months of 1940 compared with the same months of the preceding year are shown in table 3. The data are based on reports received from cities having a population of 1,000 and over.

TABLE 3.—*Permit Valuation of Building Construction in Reporting Cities of 1,000 Population and Over, First 8 Months of 1940 and 1939, by Class of Construction*

Class of construction	Permit valuation of building construction, first 8 months of—		Percentage change
	1940	1939	
All construction.....	\$1,459,114,980	\$1,406,084,005	+3.8
New residential.....	812,697,467	758,771,960	+7.1
New nonresidential.....	415,477,745	407,193,868	+2.0
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	230,939,768	240,118,177	-3.8

Table 4 presents the permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings and number of family-dwelling units provided in cities with a population of 1,000 and over, for the first 8 months of 1939 and 1940.

TABLE 4.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Family-Dwelling Units Provided, First 8 Months of 1940 and 1939, by Type of Dwelling*

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings, first 8 months of—		Percentage change	Number of family-dwelling units, first 8 months of—		Percentage change
	1940	1939		1940	1939	
All types.....	\$796,466,742	\$748,774,798	+6.4	222,110	204,965	+8.4
1-family.....	578,773,909	531,040,913	+9.0	147,133	136,870	+7.5
2-family <sup>1</sup> .....	29,087,451	30,992,228	-6.1	11,440	11,073	+3.3
Multifamily <sup>2</sup> .....	188,605,382	186,741,657	+1.0	63,537	57,016	+11.4

<sup>1</sup> Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

<sup>2</sup> Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

### Analysis by Size of City, August 1940

Table 5 shows the value of permits issued for building construction in August 1940 with percentage changes from July 1940 and August 1939, by size of city and by class of construction.

TABLE 5.—*Permit Valuation of Building Construction in 2,137 Identical Cities, by Size of City, August 1940*

Size of city	Number of cities	Total construction			New residential buildings		
		Permit valuation, August 1940	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, August 1940	Percentage change from—	
			July 1940	August 1939		July 1940	August 1939
Total, all reporting cities.....	2,137	\$243,963,395	+2.5	+25.2	\$116,865,886	-1.6	+0.6
500,000 and over.....	14	98,196,952	+40.6	+35.9	30,860,710	+10.3	-27.9
100,000 and under 500,000.....	79	41,900,201	-18.2	+5.0	23,977,451	-9.7	-5
50,000 and under 100,000.....	98	21,048,250	-32.3	-1.6	10,929,667	-29.1	-4.7
25,000 and under 50,000.....	165	23,462,937	-18.1	+37.2	13,588,406	+6.8	+39.3
10,000 and under 25,000.....	439	31,373,974	+3.5	+49.2	17,383,470	+2.0	+29.5
5,000 and under 10,000.....	380	15,462,558	+7.1	+23.8	10,877,697	+6.2	+29.1
2,500 and under 5,000.....	472	7,993,281	+8.4	+6.8	5,896,714	+9.3	+47.0
1,000 and under 2,500.....	490	4,525,242	-10.6	+41.4	3,351,771	(1)	+57.2

<sup>1</sup> Increase less than a tenth of 1 percent.

TABLE 5.—Permit Valuation of Building Construction in 2,137 Identical Cities, by Size of City, August 1940—Continued

Size of city	New nonresidential buildings			Additions, alterations, and repairs			Population (census of 1930)
	Permit valuation, August 1940	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, August 1940	Percentage change from—		
		July 1940	August 1939		July 1940	August 1939	
Total, all reporting cities.....	\$96, 111, 163	+12. 4	+110. 3	\$30, 986, 346	—8. 2	—6. 2	60, 687, 964
500,000 and over.....	57, 269, 416	+77. 6	+224. 0	10, 066, 826	+4. 9	—14. 6	21, 449, 853
100,000 and under 500,000.....	10, 296, 690	—31. 8	+25. 0	7, 626, 060	—20. 4	+ 9	15, 017, 880
50,000 and under 100,000.....	6, 776, 350	—40. 9	+15. 8	3, 342, 233	—20. 8	—17. 8	6, 499, 274
25,000 and under 50,000.....	6, 820, 866	—44. 0	+68. 5	3, 053, 665	—18. 8	—7. 3	5, 797, 508
10,000 and under 25,000.....	9, 966, 601	+6. 5	+159. 4	4, 023, 903	+2. 9	+7. 1	6, 756, 910
5,000 and under 10,000.....	2, 776, 644	+6. 5	+10. 7	1, 808, 217	+14. 3	+15. 9	2, 687, 448
2,500 and under 5,000.....	1, 348, 687	+5. 8	—51. 6	747, 880	+6. 8	+9. 5	1, 690, 835
1,000 and under 2,500.....	855, 909	—34. 6	+13. 2	317, 562	—20. 4	+1. 7	788, 256

The permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings in the 2,137 identical cities reporting for July and August 1940, together with the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings, by size of city, is given in table 6.

TABLE 6.—Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Family-Dwelling Units Provided in 2,137 Identical Cities, by Size of City, July and August 1940

Size of city	Permit valuation of house-keeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in—							
	August 1940	July 1940	Percentage change	All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings <sup>1</sup>		Multi-family dwellings <sup>2</sup>	
				August 1940	July 1940	August 1940	July 1940	August 1940	July 1940	August 1940	July 1940
Total, all reporting cities.....	\$114,802,446	\$115,614,211	-0.7	32,391	32,026	22,254	21,667	1,742	1,802	8,395	8,557
500,000 and over.....	30,644,210	27,445,543	+11.7	8,138	7,017	4,639	4,549	650	503	2,849	1,965
100,000 and under 500,000.....	23,620,251	25,609,961	-7.8	7,205	7,590	4,749	4,436	422	395	2,034	2,759
50,000 and under 100,000.....	10,889,667	15,355,546	-29.1	3,116	4,491	2,136	2,112	190	240	790	2,139
25,000 and under 50,000.....	13,540,406	12,497,166	+8.3	4,122	3,707	2,371	2,420	193	360	1,558	927
10,000 and under 25,000.....	17,205,470	16,875,371	+2.0	4,750	4,576	4,075	4,081	145	155	527	340
5,000 and under 10,000.....	9,677,957	9,129,534	+6.0	2,617	2,388	2,089	1,977	73	62	455	349
2,500 and under 5,000.....	5,879,714	5,381,464	+9.3	1,611	1,441	1,433	1,333	39	53	139	55
1,000 and under 2,500.....	3,344,771	3,319,626	+0.8	832	816	762	759	27	34	43	23

<sup>1</sup> Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

<sup>2</sup> Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The information on building permits issued is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 2,137 identical cities having a population of 1,000 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of

labor collect and forward the information to the Bureau. In New York and North Carolina the information from the smaller cities is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials and the information from the larger cities is collected and forwarded to the Bureau by the State departments of labor. The permit valuations shown in this report are estimates made by prospective builders on applying for permits to build. No land costs are included. Only building projects within the corporate limits of the cities enumerated are included in the Bureau's tabulation. The data collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show, in addition to private and municipal construction, the value of buildings for which contracts were awarded by the Federal and State Governments in the cities included in the report. For August 1940 the value of these buildings amounted to \$65,194,000, for July 1940 to \$54,323,000, and for August 1939 to \$30,800,000.

### Construction from Public Funds

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during August 1940, July 1940, and August 1939 on construction projects financed wholly or partially from various Federal funds is shown in table 7.

TABLE 7.—Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Construction Projects Financed from Federal Funds, August 1940, July 1940, and August 1939 <sup>1</sup>

Federal agency	Contracts awarded and force-account work started		
	August 1940	July 1940 <sup>2</sup>	August 1939 <sup>1</sup>
Total.....	\$150,723,733	\$954,558,440	\$177,830,431
Public Works Administration:			
Federal.....	24,631	440,107	1,728,997
Non-Federal:			
N. I. R. A.....	30,446	7,900	516,323
E. R. A. A.....	34,131	168,829	1,262,925
P. W. A. A., 1938.....	537,632	1,426,390	35,677,980
Federal agency projects under the WPA.....	1,300,135	21,296,072	20,271,535
Regular Federal appropriations.....	128,707,458	916,671,695	93,828,427
United States Housing Authority.....	20,089,300	14,547,447	24,644,244

<sup>1</sup> Preliminary, subject to revision.

<sup>2</sup> Revised.

The value of public-building and highway construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for August 1940, July 1940, and August 1939 is shown in the following statement:

	Public buildings	Highway construction
August 1940.....	\$3,738,343	\$12,910,673
July 1940.....	2,097,260	15,254,673
August 1939.....	2,128,682	7,191,527



## Cost and Standards of Living

### CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN THE UNITED STATES, JUNE 15, 1940

LIVING costs for families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities were 0.7 percent higher on June 15, 1940, than they were on March 15, 1940. Food costs were 2.8 percent higher on June 15 than on March 15, and rent increased 0.1 percent. All other groups included in the budget, i. e., clothing; fuel, electricity, and ice; house-furnishings; and miscellaneous items, showed slight declines.

The level of costs in mid-June was 1.9 percent above costs a year earlier, 10.7 percent above the level in June 1933, and 18.1 percent below December 1929.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics index of the cost of all goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in 33 cities is based on a list of items commonly consumed by wage earners and lower-salaried workers as shown by the Bureau's recent study of the family expenditures of that group. The index thus computed, using as a base an average of costs in 1935-39 as 100, was 100.5 on June 15, as compared with 99.8 on March 15, 1940.<sup>1</sup>

Costs were higher on June 15 than on March 15, in 29 of the 33 cities covered. In four cities slight declines were reported, the largest in Atlanta, where average costs at the end of the quarter were 1.1 percent below costs on March 15.

Food, which is most important in the spending of moderate-income families, increased in cost over the quarter in 32 of the 33 cities covered. One city, Atlanta, reported lower food prices at the end of the quarter, due primarily to lowered prices for all the food groups except meat and eggs. The greatest increase occurred in Chicago, where food costs rose 5.6 percent over the quarter. In most of the cities,

<sup>1</sup> The cost-of-living index upon which these changes were estimated is based on a new list of items revised to represent current consumption habits. The relative weight of each item in the revised index is based on the distribution of expenditures as shown by the 1934-36 study of family expenditures of wage earners and lower-salaried workers made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The most important of the additions to the list of commodities and services priced quarterly by the Bureau are automobiles, gasoline, fuel oil, electric refrigerators, radios, dry cleaning, and beauty shop services. One city, Manchester, N. H., has been added to the 32 cities formerly covered by these surveys. In accordance with a recommendation of the Central Statistical Board, a base of an average of the years 1935-39 is being used in presenting the revised indexes of living costs for wage earners and lower-salaried workers. This base has been recommended by the Central Statistical Board for adoption by Federal agencies which prepare general-purpose index numbers. See the Monthly Labor Review for August 1940 for details in regard to the method of calculating the new index.

higher prices for potatoes and carrots were reported due to the marketing of new crops.

Clothing costs rose in 8 cities, dropped in 25. All the changes were slight, in no case as much as 1 percent in either direction. Increases in prices of shoes in 15 cities were counterbalanced by slight decreases in 11. Prices of silk stockings declined in all 33 cities. This decline reflected decreases in raw-silk prices after the collapse of a speculative boom in the winter. The competition of synthetic fibers was a further factor in the decline.

Rental costs changed very little over the quarter. The net change for the 33 cities was an increase of 0.1 percent. Twenty-four cities reported increases, 9 declines, and in only 1, Birmingham, was the change as much as 1 percent. In that city, rental costs rose 1.3 percent.

Costs of fuel, electricity, and ice dropped 2.0 percent over the quarter, in the 33 cities combined. This change reflected declines in 26 cities, advances in 5, and no change in 2. Of the 26 cities reporting declines, 3 dropped more than 4 percent. In Chicago, the 4.8 percent drop was largely the result of the lowered cost of gas for domestic use, as well as of seasonal declines in prices for coal, coke and fuel oil. In Birmingham and Atlanta, where declines of 4.6 and 4.2 percent, respectively, were reported, the drop in bituminous-coal prices was largely responsible.

Housefurnishing costs declined, on the average, 0.5 percent. Eight cities reported increases. In the only city which reported an increase of more than 1 percent, Washington, D. C., the 1.6 percent advance was the result of higher prices for several items. The greatest increase occurred in the cost of radios which had been sold at clearance prices during the month of March and returned to the December level in June with the appearance of new models. In 25 cities, declines in housefurnishing costs were reported, the largest, 1.7 percent in Birmingham and 1.6 percent in San Francisco, due in large part to lowered costs for electrical equipment.

The net decline in the cost of miscellaneous items was 0.2 percent, the result of advances in 9 cities and declines in 24. In no city was there a rise of as much as 1 percent, and in only 2 cities was there a decline of that size. Both Buffalo and Manchester reported a 1.3 percent decrease in the cost of miscellaneous items, due very largely to lower transportation costs, particularly in gasoline prices. The drop in transportation costs was general, occurring in 31 of the 33 cities covered. Gasoline prices fell in 20 cities and remained the same in 13; tire costs dropped in 12 cities, increased in 3, and remained the same in 18; automobile costs declined in 4 cities, as a result of decreased freight rates, and remained the same in 29; the cost of

automobile insurance was lower in 32 cities, higher in 1; railroad fare decreased in 17 cities and remained the same in the other 16.

Percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers from March 15, 1940, to June 15, 1940, are shown in table 1 for 33 large cities of the United States, separately, and for these cities combined.

TABLE 1.—Percentage Change From Mar. 15, 1940, to June 15, 1940, in the Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers

Area and city	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: 33 large cities	+0.7	+2.8	-0.2	+0.1	-2.0	-0.5	-0.2
New England:							
Boston	+0.8	+3.1	-0.3	+0.1	-2.5	-0.3	-0.2
Manchester	+0.4	+2.1	-0.2	-0.4	+0.4	-0.6	-1.3
Portland, Maine	+1.0	+4.3	-0.3	-0.3	-0.7	-0.8	-0.3
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	+0.7	+3.6	-0.1	+0.3	-1.5	-0.8	-1.3
New York	+0.3	+1.3	-0.8	+0.1	-0.5	-0.9	-0.1
Philadelphia	+0.9	+3.0	-0.2	+0.1	-1.8	-0.4	(1)
Pittsburgh	+1.5	+4.5	-0.3	+0.6	-1.6	(2)	+0.1
Seranton	+0.4	+2.0	-0.2	-0.1	-1.7	-0.7	-0.8
East North Central:							
Chicago	+1.7	+5.6	-0.2	+0.1	-4.8	+0.2	+0.5
Cincinnati	+0.4	+2.0	+0.1	-0.1	-3.1	-0.9	(1)
Cleveland	+0.9	+3.2	+0.1	+0.3	-1.8	-0.6	(1)
Detroit	+1.0	+4.1	-0.2	-0.2	-1.9	-0.7	(2)
Indianapolis	+0.6	+2.8	-0.1	+0.4	-2.6	-0.7	+0.1
West North Central:							
Kansas City	+0.3	+2.0	-0.4	-0.1	-0.6	+0.4	-0.6
Minneapolis	+0.1	+0.8	-0.1	+0.1	-1.3	+0.4	-0.1
St. Louis	+0.4	+2.4	-0.3	+0.1	-3.6	-0.1	-0.1
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta	-1.1	-2.9	+0.3	+0.2	-4.2	+0.7	-0.1
Baltimore	+0.8	+2.2	-0.2	+0.5	-0.9	-0.2	+0.1
Jacksonville	+1.3	+4.6	-0.3	(3)	+1.0	(3)	-0.4
Norfolk	+0.8	+1.8	+0.7	+0.1	+0.2	-0.4	+0.7
Richmond	+0.1	+1.7	-0.5	(3)	-3.7	-0.1	(2)
Savannah	+0.8	+2.3	-0.4	+0.3	-0.2	+0.2	+0.1
Washington, D. C.	+0.4	+2.4	-0.1	-0.1	-2.5	+1.6	-0.4
East South Central:							
Birmingham	-0.3	(3)	-0.2	+1.3	-4.6	-1.7	-0.5
Memphis	(3)	+0.5	-0.2	+0.4	(3)	-0.9	-0.6
Mobile	+0.1	+1.1	-0.1	+0.1	-2.0	+0.1	-0.4
West South Central:							
Houston	-0.1	+0.2	+0.2	(3)	-2.7	-0.3	(1)
New Orleans	+0.3	+1.0	(3)	+0.3	-2.0	-0.4	-0.2
Mountain: Denver	+1.0	+2.4	-0.1	-0.1	+0.2	+0.7	+0.8
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	+0.1	+1.9	-0.1	-0.6	(4)	-1.2	-0.8
Portland, Oreg.	+1.0	+4.3	+0.1	+0.3	-1.3	-0.5	-0.9
San Francisco	+0.3	+1.8	+0.2	+0.1	(3)	-1.6	-0.7
Seattle	+0.1	+1.1	+0.1	+0.1	(3)	-0.9	-0.9

<sup>1</sup> Includes 51 cities.

<sup>2</sup> Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.

<sup>3</sup> Increase of less than 0.05 percent.

<sup>4</sup> No change.

Percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers from the low point, June 1933, from September 15, 1937, from June 15, 1939, and from March 15, 1940, to June 15, 1940, in 33 cities, are presented in table 2.



TABLE 2.—Percentage Change in Cost of All Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers for Specified Periods

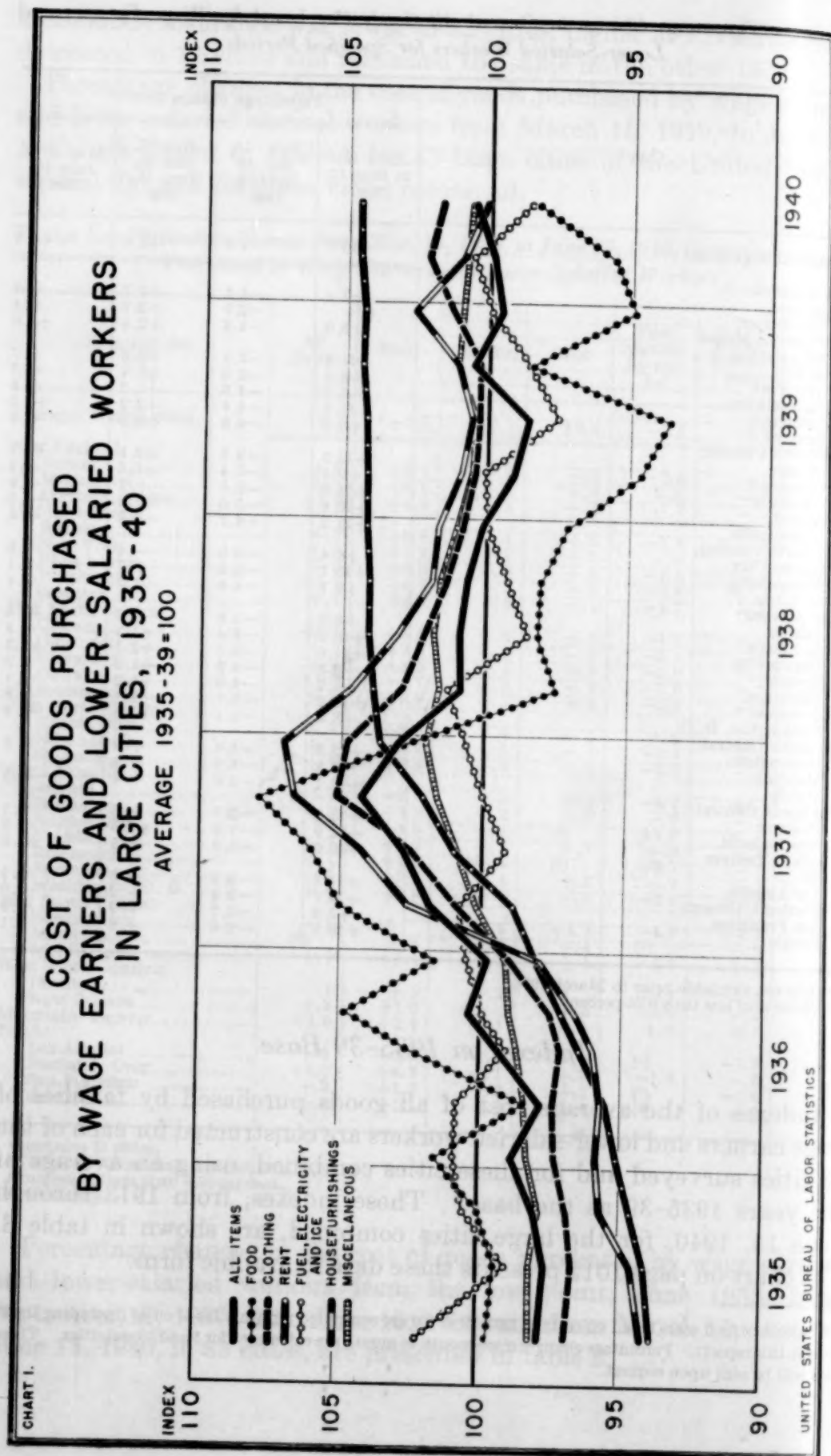
City	Percentage change from—			
	June 1933 to June 15, 1940	Sept. 15, 1937, to June 15, 1940	June 15, 1939, to June 15, 1940	Mar. 15 to June 15, 1940
Average: 33 large cities	+10.7	-3.6	+1.9	+0.7
New England:				
Boston	+7.4	-4.6	+2.7	+ .8
Manchester	( <sup>1</sup> )	-2.9	+2.7	+ .4
Portland, Maine	+5.0	-4.5	+2.5	+1.0
Middle Atlantic:				
Buffalo	+11.4	-3.2	+2.6	+ .7
New York	+8.4	-2.3	+3.4	+ .3
Philadelphia	+8.8	-4.6	+1.2	+ .9
Pittsburgh	+11.7	-4.4	+2.2	+1.5
Scranton	+6.2	-4.8	+2.5	+ .4
East North Central:				
Chicago	+12.3	-3.5	+2.5	+1.7
Cincinnati	+9.1	-5.4	+1.5	+ .4
Cleveland	+14.0	-2.6	+ .7	+ .9
Detroit	+20.8	-5.0	+1.8	+1.0
Indianapolis	+11.2	-4.1	+1.8	+ .6
West North Central:				
Kansas City	+6.4	-5.0	- .4	+ .3
Minneapolis	+13.7	-3.2	+ .7	+ .1
St. Louis	+9.7	-4.4	+1.7	+ .4
South Atlantic:				
Atlanta	+8.3	-5.6	+ .5	-1.1
Baltimore	+10.9	-2.4	+1.3	+ .8
Jacksonville	+11.6	-3.1	+2.1	+1.3
Norfolk	+9.3	-4.3	+1.2	+ .8
Richmond	+8.2	-4.9	+1.2	+ .1
Savannah	+10.2	-2.1	+2.1	+ .8
Washington, D. C.	+8.0	-3.1	+1.6	+ .4
East South Central:				
Birmingham	+12.2	-5.6	+ .9	- .3
Memphis	+9.3	-4.9	+ .4	( <sup>2</sup> )
Mobile	+10.1	-4.0	+ .4	+ .1
West South Central:				
Houston	+13.8	-2.7	+ .5	- .1
New Orleans	+12.9	-1.8	+2.5	+ .3
Mountain: Denver	+10.9	-5.2	+ .5	+1.0
Pacific:				
Los Angeles	+11.3	-3.2	+ .5	+ .1
Portland, Oregon	+13.7	-3.3	+ .2	+1.0
San Francisco	+7.9	-2.7	+ .9	+ .3
Seattle	+10.0	-2.0	+ .9	+ .1

<sup>1</sup> Data not available prior to March 1935.<sup>2</sup> Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.

### Indexes on 1935-39 Base

Indexes of the average cost of all goods purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers are constructed for each of the 33 cities surveyed and for these cities combined, using an average of the years 1935-39 as the base.<sup>1</sup> These indexes, from 1913 through June 15, 1940, for the large cities combined, are shown in table 3. The chart on page 1012 presents these data in graphic form.

<sup>1</sup> Indexes of food costs based on costs in 1935-39 as 100 are computed monthly for 51 cities (including the 33 cities in this report). Percentage changes from month to month are calculated for 5 additional cities. These data will be sent upon request.



TAB

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TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Large Cities Combined, 1913 through June 15, 1940*

[Average 1935-39=100]

Date	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House- furnish- ings	Miscel- laneous
1913—Average.....	70.7	79.9	69.3	92.2	61.9	59.1	50.9
1914—December.....	72.6	83.9	70.0	92.2	62.5	61.5	52.4
1915—December.....	74.0	83.9	72.5	93.6	62.5	65.4	54.6
1916—December.....	82.4	100.6	83.2	94.3	67.1	75.5	57.6
1917—December.....	97.8	125.4	103.3	92.3	76.8	89.0	71.5
1918—December.....	118.0	149.6	147.9	97.1	90.4	121.2	83.1
1919—June.....	121.0	148.5	160.1	101.0	89.3	128.8	85.5
December.....	135.3	160.0	198.4	109.6	94.8	152.3	94.3
1920—June.....	149.4	185.0	209.7	119.1	104.8	169.7	100.7
December.....	138.3	146.4	187.8	131.4	119.0	164.4	104.7
1921—May.....	126.6	121.2	161.5	139.2	112.9	141.6	104.7
September.....	125.3	129.2	139.5	140.0	112.7	127.8	104.0
December.....	123.6	126.1	133.4	142.3	113.8	124.4	103.5
1922—March.....	119.3	118.3	127.3	142.0	110.5	117.7	101.8
June.....	119.5	121.0	124.9	142.5	110.0	115.5	100.9
September.....	118.7	118.1	123.5	142.8	115.8	115.7	100.7
December.....	120.4	122.4	123.6	143.8	117.3	119.3	100.4
1923—March.....	120.2	119.7	125.4	144.5	116.5	124.7	100.5
June.....	121.6	123.7	125.7	146.0	113.2	127.4	100.5
September.....	123.1	126.6	126.7	147.4	114.5	127.5	101.1
December.....	123.5	126.0	126.7	149.6	116.0	127.4	101.5
1924—March.....	122.0	121.3	126.3	150.4	114.7	126.5	101.2
June.....	121.8	121.5	125.1	152.0	112.0	123.1	101.3
September.....	122.2	123.1	123.8	152.2	113.5	122.1	101.3
December.....	123.2	125.9	123.0	152.6	114.2	122.7	101.7
1925—June.....	124.9	131.9	122.6	152.2	112.4	121.3	102.3
December.....	128.2	140.6	121.8	152.0	121.3	121.1	102.6
1926—June.....	126.4	137.8	120.7	150.6	114.7	118.6	102.5
December.....	126.1	136.8	119.6	150.0	118.6	117.3	102.8
1927—June.....	125.7	137.5	118.5	148.4	114.1	115.7	103.1
December.....	123.8	132.5	116.9	146.9	115.4	115.2	103.6
1928—June.....	122.1	129.7	116.7	144.8	112.0	112.8	103.6
December.....	122.4	130.6	116.0	143.3	114.3	112.1	104.3
1929—June.....	122.1	131.3	115.4	141.4	111.1	111.7	104.5
December.....	122.8	133.8	114.7	139.9	113.6	111.3	104.9
1930—June.....	120.3	128.1	113.8	138.0	109.9	109.9	105.2
December.....	115.3	116.5	109.4	135.1	112.4	105.4	104.9
1931—June.....	108.2	102.1	103.5	130.9	107.3	98.1	104.3
December.....	104.2	96.5	96.3	125.8	109.1	92.6	103.3
1932—June.....	97.4	85.7	91.1	117.8	101.6	84.8	101.8
December.....	93.5	82.0	86.2	109.0	102.5	81.3	100.2
1933—June.....	90.8	82.2	84.8	100.1	97.2	81.5	97.8
December.....	93.9	88.1	94.4	95.8	102.9	91.1	98.1
1934—June.....	95.3	93.0	96.6	94.0	100.3	92.9	97.9
November 15.....	96.2	95.4	96.5	93.9	101.8	93.6	97.8
1935—March 15.....	97.8	99.7	96.8	93.8	102.1	94.2	98.1
July 15.....	97.6	99.4	96.7	94.1	99.0	94.5	98.2
October 15.....	98.0	100.0	96.9	94.6	100.5	95.7	97.9
1936—January 15.....	98.8	101.5	97.3	95.1	100.8	95.8	98.2
April 15.....	97.8	98.4	97.4	95.5	100.8	95.7	98.4
July 15.....	99.4	102.6	97.2	96.5	99.1	95.9	98.7
September 15.....	100.4	104.8	97.5	97.1	99.9	96.6	99.0
December 15.....	99.8	101.6	99.0	98.1	100.5	97.9	99.1
1937—March 15.....	101.8	105.0	100.9	98.9	100.8	102.6	100.2
June 15.....	102.8	106.0	102.5	101.0	99.2	104.3	100.9
September 15.....	104.3	107.9	105.1	102.1	100.0	106.7	101.7
December 15.....	103.0	102.7	104.8	103.7	100.7	107.0	102.0
1938—March 15.....	100.9	97.5	102.9	103.9	101.2	104.7	101.6
June 15.....	100.9	98.2	102.2	104.2	98.6	103.1	101.8
September 15.....	100.7	98.1	101.4	104.2	99.3	101.9	101.6
December 15.....	100.2	97.2	100.9	104.3	100.0	101.7	101.0
1939—March 15.....	99.1	94.6	100.4	104.3	100.1	100.9	100.5
June 15.....	98.6	93.6	100.3	104.3	97.5	100.6	100.4
September 15.....	100.6	98.4	100.3	104.4	98.6	101.1	101.1
December 15.....	99.6	94.9	101.3	104.4	99.9	102.7	100.9
1940—March 15.....	99.8	95.6	102.0	104.5	100.6	100.5	100.8
June 15.....	100.5	98.3	101.7	104.6	98.6	100.1	100.6

The indexes of the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show relative costs as of particular dates. For various purposes,



however, it is often necessary to have estimates of annual average indexes. These estimates are, therefore, presented in table 4, for large cities combined, from 1913 through 1939. The annual average indexes have been computed as follows: The annual average food index is an average of the indexes (monthly, most years) falling within each year; the annual average indexes for clothing; rent; fuel, electricity, and ice; housefurnishings; and miscellaneous items are indexes of the weighted average of the aggregates for each pricing period affecting the year, the weights representing the relative importance of each pricing period. When these goods were priced only twice a year, in June and again in December, it is evident that prices in December of the previous year were more indicative of prices in the next month, January, even though it fell in a new year, than were the prices of the succeeding June. Therefore, costs in December of the preceding year and in June and December of the given year are all considered in arriving at an average cost for the year. The relative importance of each of these costs is expressed for December of the previous year by  $2\frac{1}{2}$ , for June of the given year by 6, and for December of the given year by  $3\frac{1}{2}$ . Weights for years in which pricing was done at other intervals will be furnished on request.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated<sup>1</sup> Annual Average Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Large Cities Combined, 1913-39*

[Average 1935-39=100]

Year	All items	Food <sup>2</sup>	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House furnishings	Miscellaneous
1913.....	70.7	79.9	69.3	92.2	61.9	59.1	50.9
1914.....	71.8	81.8	69.8	92.2	62.3	60.7	51.9
1915.....	72.5	80.9	71.4	92.9	62.5	63.6	53.6
1916.....	77.9	90.8	78.3	94.0	65.0	70.9	56.3
1917.....	91.6	116.9	94.1	93.2	72.4	82.8	65.1
1918.....	107.5	134.4	127.5	94.9	84.2	106.4	77.8
1919.....	124.5	152.1	168.7	102.7	91.1	124.1	87.6
1920.....	143.2	168.5	201.0	120.7	106.9	164.6	100.5
1921.....	127.7	128.6	154.8	138.6	114.0	138.5	104.3
1922.....	119.7	120.3	125.6	142.7	113.1	117.5	101.2
1923.....	121.9	124.0	125.9	146.4	115.2	126.1	100.8
1924.....	122.2	122.8	124.9	151.6	113.7	124.0	101.4
1925.....	125.4	132.9	122.4	152.2	115.4	121.5	102.3
1926.....	126.4	137.4	120.6	150.7	117.2	118.8	102.6
1927.....	124.0	132.3	118.3	148.3	115.4	115.9	103.2
1928.....	122.6	130.8	116.5	144.8	113.4	113.1	103.8
1929.....	122.5	132.5	115.3	141.4	112.5	111.7	104.6
1930.....	119.4	126.0	112.7	137.5	111.4	108.9	105.1
1931.....	108.7	103.9	102.6	130.3	108.9	98.0	104.1
1932.....	97.6	86.5	90.8	116.9	103.4	85.4	101.7
1933.....	92.4	84.1	87.9	100.7	100.0	84.2	98.4
1934.....	95.7	93.7	96.1	94.4	101.4	92.8	97.9
1935.....	98.1	100.4	96.8	94.2	100.7	94.8	98.1
1936.....	99.1	101.3	97.6	96.4	100.2	96.3	98.7
1937.....	102.7	105.3	102.8	100.9	100.2	104.3	101.0
1938.....	100.8	97.8	102.2	104.1	99.9	103.3	101.5
1939.....	99.4	95.2	100.5	104.3	99.0	101.3	100.7

<sup>1</sup> For explanation of method used, see text above.

<sup>2</sup> Covers 51 cities since June 1920.

Table 5 presents June 15, 1940, indexes of living costs for families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers based on average costs in the years 1935-39 as 100, for each of the 33 cities, by groups of items.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers, by Groups of Items, June 15, 1940*

[Average 1935-39=100]

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: 33 large cities.....	100.5	98.3	101.7	104.6	98.6	100.1	100.6
New England:							
Boston.....	100.0	98.9	100.9	100.5	104.0	97.7	99.9
Manchester.....	100.5	99.8	100.2	101.8	102.7	100.0	100.2
Portland, Maine.....	98.9	96.9	100.0	100.6	100.4	99.4	99.0
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo.....	101.2	100.1	101.0	106.2	97.7	99.4	100.6
New York.....	101.6	101.1	101.1	102.6	99.6	97.5	102.4
Philadelphia.....	99.2	95.9	101.3	103.1	96.8	101.9	100.8
Pittsburgh.....	100.6	98.0	102.6	105.7	99.8	101.7	99.2
Scranton.....	98.7	98.3	101.7	98.1	94.7	98.2	100.0
East North Central:							
Chicago.....	101.4	99.5	99.8	108.6	97.9	101.7	100.2
Cincinnati.....	98.8	94.5	104.0	102.2	96.6	99.8	100.5
Cleveland.....	101.5	99.0	102.9	107.9	107.6	100.3	99.3
Detroit.....	100.9	98.3	101.8	107.7	97.0	99.5	99.9
Indianapolis.....	100.2	96.7	103.3	109.8	95.3	99.3	99.5
West North Central:							
Kansas City.....	98.6	92.9	102.9	102.7	97.3	97.5	101.0
Minneapolis.....	100.8	97.9	100.8	108.0	95.6	103.2	100.9
St. Louis.....	99.5	97.5	102.8	101.6	99.3	96.3	100.1
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta.....	98.5	93.2	102.3	104.3	96.5	97.7	100.0
Baltimore.....	100.5	98.7	101.5	104.1	97.3	101.2	100.6
Jacksonville.....	100.2	100.4	101.4	103.6	96.3	99.8	98.9
Norfolk.....	98.5	94.7	103.5	102.2	92.3	99.4	100.9
Richmond.....	98.5	92.7	103.5	102.8	97.0	102.9	100.2
Savannah.....	100.8	99.6	101.8	104.8	97.6	104.8	100.0
Washington, D. C.....	100.1	98.3	102.9	99.9	96.8	104.5	100.6
East South Central:							
Birmingham.....	99.0	92.0	102.5	113.8	89.8	96.9	100.1
Memphis.....	98.4	92.8	102.1	105.3	94.0	101.4	100.0
Mobile.....	99.2	97.3	100.6	105.7	94.5	102.0	98.6
West South Central:							
Houston.....	100.7	97.9	103.2	106.7	93.1	104.6	99.9
New Orleans.....	101.1	100.8	101.5	103.2	99.8	102.3	100.3
Mountain: Denver.....	99.7	96.2	99.9	106.7	97.9	102.2	99.8
Pacific:							
Los Angeles.....	100.8	97.4	103.4	106.6	95.5	100.2	101.2
Portland, Oreg.....	100.7	99.8	103.2	106.5	91.6	99.9	100.3
San Francisco.....	100.1	96.7	103.2	103.7	91.8	101.2	101.6
Seattle.....	101.7	99.7	103.9	106.8	98.3	98.5	101.7

<sup>1</sup> Includes 51 cities.

Table 6 presents indexes of the cost of all goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in each of the 33 cities, for each date from March 15, 1935 through June 15, 1940, on the 1935-39 base. It is planned to publish these indexes for each group of items in each December report, and to publish only the indexes of the cost of all goods in the March, June, and September reports. Mimeographed tables of indexes for individual cities are available upon request.

TABLE 6.—Indexes of Cost of All Goods Purchased By Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Each of 33 Large Cities, Mar. 15, 1935, Through June 15, 1940

[Average 1935-39=100]

Date	New England			Middle Atlantic				
	Boston	Man- chester	Port- land, Maine	Buffalo	New York	Phila- delphia	Pitts- burgh	Scranton
1935—March 15.....	100.3	99.1	100.0	96.9	98.9	98.0	96.9	99.8
July 15.....	99.0	99.2	100.7	97.7	98.3	98.2	97.4	99.9
October 15.....	99.2	98.9	100.1	97.2	98.7	99.0	98.3	100.3
1936—January 15.....	100.1	99.8	100.5	98.0	99.9	100.1	98.7	101.4
April 15.....	99.6	99.3	99.9	98.1	98.6	99.2	97.5	99.4
July 15.....	100.8	100.8	101.3	100.0	99.5	100.2	100.0	101.4
September 15.....	100.3	100.4	101.1	100.0	100.4	101.0	101.2	102.5
December 15.....	99.3	99.7	100.5	99.9	99.5	100.8	100.0	101.8
1937—March 15.....	101.5	102.1	102.0	101.7	101.3	102.2	101.8	102.1
June 15.....	102.6	103.2	103.6	103.9	101.4	102.7	103.6	102.9
September 15.....	104.8	103.5	103.5	104.5	103.9	104.0	105.2	103.8
December 15.....	102.2	101.6	101.8	103.6	102.8	101.6	102.5	101.2
1938—March 15.....	99.8	100.1	99.3	101.3	99.6	100.2	100.8	99.7
June 15.....	99.8	100.3	99.2	100.6	99.7	100.6	101.2	99.6
September 15.....	99.8	99.6	99.4	100.1	100.3	100.1	101.1	97.7
December 15.....	98.8	98.8	97.8	100.4	100.2	99.4	100.3	97.9
1939—March 15.....	98.1	98.0	96.6	99.3	99.2	98.2	97.8	96.9
June 15.....	97.4	97.9	96.4	98.6	98.2	98.0	98.4	96.4
September 15.....	99.3	100.4	99.0	101.1	101.3	99.6	100.1	98.7
December 15.....	97.9	99.0	97.6	99.7	100.1	98.6	98.8	97.4
1940—March 15.....	99.2	100.1	97.8	100.5	101.2	98.3	99.1	98.4
June 15.....	100.0	100.5	98.9	101.2	101.6	99.2	100.6	98.7

Date	East North Central					West North Central		
	Chicago	Cincin- nati	Cleve- land	Detroit	Indian- apolis	Kansas City	Minne- apolis	St. Louis
1935—March 15.....	97.1	98.6	96.9	94.2	97.1	98.0	96.4	98.0
July 15.....	97.3	98.5	97.0	94.9	97.4	97.3	96.1	98.3
October 15.....	97.2	99.0	97.4	95.5	98.4	98.0	96.8	98.2
1936—January 15.....	97.7	99.6	97.2	96.5	98.9	98.7	98.0	99.4
April 15.....	96.9	98.2	96.8	96.4	97.9	97.6	96.9	98.3
July 15.....	98.7	100.6	98.6	99.2	98.8	99.3	98.1	99.8
September 15.....	100.5	101.7	100.0	100.1	100.2	100.7	100.1	101.3
December 15.....	99.5	99.9	98.4	99.5	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.7
1937—March 15.....	101.3	102.7	100.5	102.7	101.9	101.7	101.6	101.8
June 15.....	103.6	103.1	102.8	105.3	103.4	102.9	102.7	103.0
September 15.....	105.1	104.4	104.3	106.1	104.4	103.8	104.2	104.1
December 15.....	103.3	102.9	102.9	106.4	103.5	102.6	103.4	102.7
1938—March 15.....	101.1	100.6	101.1	104.2	101.5	100.9	101.5	100.7
June 15.....	102.2	100.5	101.8	103.0	101.1	100.8	101.8	100.4
September 15.....	102.1	100.3	101.9	101.5	101.0	100.3	101.4	100.7
December 15.....	100.8	99.1	101.4	100.7	100.0	99.7	100.9	99.5
1939—March 15.....	99.4	98.2	101.0	99.8	99.3	99.1	100.2	99.0
June 15.....	98.9	97.3	100.8	99.1	98.4	99.0	100.1	97.8
September 15.....	100.7	99.4	101.7	100.2	99.7	100.6	101.2	100.4
December 15.....	99.8	98.2	100.9	99.8	99.6	99.3	101.1	99.1
1940—March 15.....	99.7	98.4	100.7	99.9	99.6	98.3	100.7	99.0
June 15.....	101.4	98.8	101.5	100.9	100.2	98.6	100.8	99.5



TABLE 6.—Indexes of Cost of All Goods Purchased By Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Each of 33 Large Cities, Mar. 15, 1935, Through June 15, 1940—Con.

Date	South Atlantic							East South Central
	Atlanta	Balti- more	Jack- sonville	Norfolk	Rich- mond	Savan- nah	Wash- ington, D. C.	Bir- ming- ham
1935—March 15.....	97.5	98.1	97.9	99.5	98.2	98.6	98.6	96.0
July 15.....	97.6	98.4	98.9	98.9	98.3	98.5	98.7	97.0
October 15.....	99.8	98.9	99.2	100.1	99.7	100.0	99.4	98.3
1936—January 15.....	100.3	99.8	100.0	101.1	99.9	100.2	99.9	98.0
April 15.....	98.3	99.1	98.0	99.0	98.3	98.5	98.6	96.1
July 15.....	99.9	99.7	100.1	100.0	99.8	100.1	99.8	99.0
September 15.....	101.1	100.6	100.2	100.9	101.5	100.3	100.5	100.2
December 15.....	100.9	99.7	100.7	101.2	102.0	100.2	100.4	100.9
1937—March 15.....	102.2	101.4	102.4	102.1	102.0	101.7	101.9	103.2
June 15.....	102.8	101.7	102.8	102.2	101.6	102.1	102.4	104.0
September 15.....	104.3	102.9	103.4	102.9	103.6	103.0	103.3	104.9
December 15.....	102.6	101.9	102.7	101.8	102.0	101.9	102.2	104.1
1938—March 15.....	100.1	100.3	100.4	100.1	100.6	100.3	100.1	101.5
June 15.....	99.2	100.3	100.2	99.0	99.2	99.8	100.1	100.7
September 15.....	100.0	100.1	100.2	99.0	100.0	99.4	100.1	101.2
December 15.....	100.0	100.0	99.1	99.0	99.8	99.5	99.7	100.4
1939—March 15.....	98.8	99.6	98.4	98.4	98.6	98.7	98.9	99.1
June 15.....	98.0	99.2	98.2	97.3	97.4	98.7	98.5	98.2
September 15.....	100.1	100.5	100.1	99.5	99.9	100.6	100.3	100.3
December 15.....	98.7	98.9	99.3	98.5	98.8	99.7	98.9	99.5
1940—March 15.....	99.5	99.7	98.9	97.7	98.4	100.0	99.6	99.3
June 15.....	98.5	100.5	100.2	98.5	98.5	100.8	100.1	99.0

Date	East South Central—Con.		West South Central		Mountain	Pacific			
	Mem- phis	Mobile	Hous- ton	New Orleans	Denver	Los Angeles	Port- land, Oreg.	San Francisco	Seattle
1935—March 15.....	98.5	98.6	97.6	99.4	97.2	98.2	96.4	99.4	97.4
July 15.....	97.7	98.4	96.5	98.4	96.8	95.4	95.5	97.5	95.7
October 15.....	97.6	98.9	97.0	98.9	97.2	95.1	95.7	97.8	95.9
1936—January 15.....	98.7	98.7	97.8	99.3	97.9	96.6	96.8	98.4	97.8
April 15.....	98.4	97.5	96.7	97.3	97.1	95.7	96.2	97.0	96.5
July 15.....	99.7	99.6	98.5	99.7	99.6	97.2	98.2	97.9	97.7
September 15.....	100.7	99.5	99.5	100.4	100.5	99.6	99.3	98.7	99.0
December 15.....	101.0	99.0	99.6	100.5	99.9	99.4	99.4	98.8	99.5
1937—March 15.....	102.7	102.5	101.6	102.4	102.8	103.4	102.0	101.1	102.0
June 15.....	102.9	103.3	101.5	101.5	103.5	102.9	103.0	101.5	102.2
September 15.....	103.5	103.3	103.5	103.0	105.1	104.2	104.7	102.9	103.7
December 15.....	102.5	102.0	103.0	101.6	103.3	103.2	103.2	103.0	103.2
1938—March 15.....	100.4	100.8	101.7	100.4	101.0	101.5	102.7	101.2	102.2
June 15.....	100.1	100.6	101.2	99.1	101.0	101.8	101.7	101.4	101.2
September 15.....	100.4	100.3	101.5	100.3	100.2	101.8	101.6	101.7	101.1
December 15.....	99.5	99.6	101.4	99.9	99.9	102.6	101.7	101.4	101.2
1939—March 15.....	98.5	99.4	100.0	99.4	99.2	101.2	100.7	100.3	100.9
June 15.....	98.1	98.8	100.1	98.7	99.2	100.3	100.5	99.2	100.8
September 15.....	100.4	101.0	101.6	102.0	99.7	101.9	102.1	101.0	102.6
December 15.....	98.9	99.7	101.3	100.4	99.7	100.4	100.9	100.2	100.9
1940—March 15.....	98.5	99.1	100.8	100.9	98.7	100.7	99.7	99.8	101.6
June 15.....	98.4	99.2	100.7	101.1	99.7	100.8	100.7	100.1	101.7

*Description of the Indexes*

An article appearing in the August 1940 issue of the Monthly Labor Review presents a summary discussion of the method of preparing these indexes and of their uses in showing time-to-time changes in the cost of goods and services purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers, as well as a discussion of the revision of these indexes completed this spring on the basis of the Bureau's recent study of family expenditures. Reprints of that article are available on request to the Bureau.

The only comparison between cities that can be drawn from the Bureau's indexes is a comparison of the extent of change in living costs in different cities over given periods. Thus, the index of the cost of all items as of June 15, 1940, based on costs in 1935-39 as 100, was 101.7 in Seattle and 98.4 in Memphis. A comparison of these two indexes indicates that on June 15, 1940, living costs in Memphis were 1.6 percent lower than the average for the years 1935-39, but that in Seattle, costs on this date were 1.7 percent higher than the average for the years 1935-39 in that city. This comparison does not indicate that costs on June 15, 1940, were 3.2 percent higher in Seattle than in Memphis. In order to secure figures showing a comparison of actual living costs between cities, expenditures serving as the weights for items priced in the different cities would have to be representative of identical levels of living. Differences between the average costs from which the Bureau of Labor Statistics indexes are computed in different cities are due to differences in standards and in purchasing habits in those cities as well as to varying prices for goods of given grades. Differences between the indexes of costs from time to time in the various cities at any particular date are due entirely to differences in the percentage of change in living costs in each city.

The comparison of the cost of the same level of living from one part of the country to another presents serious technical difficulties for which wholly satisfactory techniques have not yet been developed. This is particularly true in attempting to measure differences in living costs from large to very small cities or from urban to rural communities, where consideration must be given not only to differences in such factors as climate and consumption habits but also to differences in housing, the fuels available, and the means of transportation.

## ESTIMATED INTERCITY DIFFERENCES IN COST OF LIVING, JUNE 15, 1940

IN MARCH 1935, the Division of Social Research of the Works Progress Administration conducted a study of comparative living costs in 59 cities. The purpose of this study was to determine the cost of a uniform level of living in these cities at a given time, and how its cost compared from one city to another. Quantity budgets were constructed by the Works Progress Administration to represent the needs of families at two levels of living, the "basic maintenance" level and the "emergency" level. An identical budget for each of these levels of living, with certain adjustments in the fuel, ice, and transportation lists to take account of climatic and other local conditions, was used in each city. The Bureau of Labor Statistics cooperated with the Division of Social Research of the Works Progress Administration in obtaining the prices necessary to compute the costs of the two budgets. Insofar as possible, prices for identical commodities were obtained in each city. Details of this study and a description of the goods and services included in each budget can be found in the report "Intercity Differences in Costs of Living in March 1935, 59 Cities," Research Monograph XII, a copy of which may be obtained from the Division of Research, Work Projects Administration, Washington, D. C.

Between March 1935 and the spring of 1939, no attempt was made to price these budgets. In order to bring the intercity comparison of costs up-to-date, estimates of the cost of the "maintenance" budget were made, however, for the 31 cities covered by both the Works Progress Administration study and the Bureau of Labor Statistics' studies of changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers. By applying the Bureau of Labor Statistics' indexes of living costs, which show changes in costs from time to time, to the Works Progress Administration data on intercity differences in costs in March 1935, approximate intercity comparisons of costs were obtained. Since the cost of living indexes of the Bureau of Labor Statistics are based on a budget weighted differently from the budget used in the Works Progress Administration study, when the two sets of figures were combined, the resulting estimates of intercity differences in costs were merely approximations.

Early in 1939, the Works Progress Administration budgets were, in part, priced again for many of the cities. At this time the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in connection with its study of comparative living costs in 10 small cities,<sup>1</sup> computed the cost of parts of the "mainte-

<sup>1</sup> A study of "Differences in living costs in northern and southern cities" was made at the request of the Wage and Hour Division. The July 1939 Monthly Labor Review carries an article describing the survey.



nance" budget using prices obtained as of December 15, 1938, and February 14, 1939.

The cost of clothing, housefurnishings, fuel and light, and miscellaneous groups were recomputed on the basis of prices of 55 articles of clothing, 16 articles of furniture and furnishings, 5 items of fuel and light, and 37 miscellaneous items on December 15, 1938, and weighted by the quantities provided in the "maintenance" budget. The food-cost budget was entirely recomputed in terms of the "adequate diet at minimum cost" of the United States Bureau of Home Economics (a somewhat more varied diet than that originally used in the "maintenance" budget).

Average rents in each of the 31 cities were estimated by applying the Bureau's time-to-time indexes of rental costs to the Works Progress Administration's figures for March 1935.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has prepared approximations for June 15, 1940, by applying the Bureau's indexes of living costs, which show changes in costs from time to time, to the costs estimated by the Bureau as of December 15, 1938, for all items other than food. The "adequate diet at minimum cost" was recalculated for each city as of June 15, 1940, on the basis of 60 foods priced by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The attached tables present these approximations. Table 6 shows estimated cost of living for a four-person manual worker's family, at the maintenance level as defined by the Works Progress Administration in 31 large cities, as of the most recent date for which the Bureau of Labor Statistics has secured prices. Table 7 presents these data as indexes on a base of the cost in Washington, D. C., as of June 15, 1940, as 100.

TABL

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TABLE 1.—*Estimated<sup>1</sup> Cost of Living for a 4-Person Manual Worker's Family at "Maintenance Level"<sup>2</sup> in 31 Large Cities as of June 15, 1940*

City	Total	Food	Clothing	Housing	Fuel and light	Furniture, furnishings, household equipment	Miscellaneous
Atlanta.....	\$1,324.71	\$474.71	\$160.88	\$285.37	\$84.05	\$29.95	\$289.75
Baltimore.....	1,320.67	468.35	166.64	248.77	99.79	35.39	301.73
Birmingham.....	1,280.74	475.23	171.78	230.22	67.03	31.37	305.11
Boston.....	1,434.91	487.80	169.94	260.43	135.53	32.37	348.84
Buffalo.....	1,307.61	470.18	169.25	240.55	107.17	31.95	288.51
Chicago.....	1,454.70	479.82	159.71	290.98	125.79	31.32	367.08
Cincinnati.....	1,325.15	444.85	177.74	268.87	92.50	34.64	306.55
Cleveland.....	1,388.96	452.76	177.06	285.02	111.19	32.80	330.13
Denver.....	1,296.68	450.33	163.53	237.83	112.91	32.88	299.20
Detroit.....	1,427.87	466.22	168.76	305.96	111.63	31.43	343.87
Houston.....	1,297.86	447.41	160.92	244.61	85.60	34.86	324.46
Indianapolis.....	1,289.87	450.12	160.96	241.82	91.85	32.06	313.06
Jacksonville.....	1,299.81	489.05	148.93	219.33	99.87	32.47	310.16
Kansas City.....	1,251.90	450.08	173.83	208.75	102.60	32.40	284.24
Los Angeles.....	1,316.85	436.95	169.90	242.58	72.05	34.78	360.59
Memphis.....	1,294.82	440.01	172.39	261.94	81.04	34.93	304.51
Minneapolis.....	1,408.52	472.32	162.39	305.63	135.57	32.26	300.15
Mobile.....	1,172.77	462.65	155.53	178.02	76.46	33.73	266.38
New Orleans.....	1,265.50	465.10	161.72	207.19	73.26	36.37	321.86
New York.....	1,506.52	522.52	165.77	309.35	117.14	33.99	357.75
Norfolk.....	1,327.94	481.24	171.52	246.15	90.35	33.62	305.06
Philadelphia.....	1,335.85	477.83	169.29	256.14	99.10	33.28	300.21
Pittsburgh.....	1,373.23	477.18	167.90	287.25	87.34	33.83	319.73
Portland, Maine.....	1,357.91	504.46	162.65	201.22	147.50	32.82	309.26
Portland, Oreg.....	1,313.29	474.11	160.92	191.24	126.93	33.72	326.37
Richmond.....	1,330.92	453.61	167.14	252.12	100.64	34.13	323.28
St. Louis.....	1,383.93	477.03	162.84	283.80	106.67	35.63	317.96
San Francisco.....	1,449.18	482.91	172.87	285.82	85.01	36.99	385.58
Scranton.....	1,367.44	484.64	160.68	265.50	93.46	31.67	331.49
Seattle.....	1,375.87	490.62	172.37	195.89	125.23	35.08	356.68
Washington, D. C.....	1,488.97	487.29	172.32	350.57	111.86	35.93	331.00

<sup>1</sup> See explanation of method given on pp. 1019 and 1020.<sup>2</sup> See the Works Progress Administration publication "Intercity differences in costs of living in March 1935, 50 Cities," Research Monograph XII, for the items included in the "maintenance" budget.

TABLE 2.—Estimated <sup>1</sup> Indexes of Cost of Living for a 4-Person Manual Worker's Family at "Maintenance Level" <sup>2</sup>, June 15, 1940

[Washington costs as of June 15, 1940]

City	Total	Food	Clothing	Housing	Fuel and light	Furniture, furnishings, household equipment	Miscellaneous
Atlanta.....	89.0	97.4	93.4	81.4	75.1	83.4	87.5
Baltimore.....	88.7	96.1	96.7	71.0	89.2	98.5	91.2
Birmingham.....	86.0	97.5	99.7	65.7	59.9	87.3	92.2
Boston.....	96.4	100.1	98.6	74.3	121.2	90.1	105.4
Buffalo.....	87.8	96.5	98.2	68.6	95.8	88.9	87.2
Chicago.....	97.7	98.5	92.7	83.0	112.5	87.2	110.9
Cincinnati.....	89.0	91.3	103.1	76.7	82.7	96.4	92.6
Cleveland.....	93.3	92.9	102.8	81.3	99.4	91.3	99.7
Denver.....	87.1	92.4	94.9	67.8	100.9	91.5	90.4
Detroit.....	95.9	95.7	97.9	87.3	99.8	87.5	103.9
Houston.....	87.2	91.8	93.4	69.8	76.5	97.0	98.0
Indianapolis.....	86.6	92.4	93.4	69.0	82.1	89.2	94.6
Jacksonville.....	87.3	100.4	86.4	62.6	89.3	90.4	93.7
Kansas City.....	84.1	92.4	100.9	59.5	91.7	90.2	85.9
Los Angeles.....	88.4	89.7	98.6	69.2	64.4	96.8	108.9
Memphis.....	87.0	90.3	100.0	74.7	72.4	97.2	92.0
Minneapolis.....	94.6	96.9	94.4	87.2	121.2	89.8	90.7
Mobile.....	78.8	94.9	90.3	50.8	68.4	93.9	80.8
New Orleans.....	85.0	95.4	93.8	59.1	65.5	101.2	97.2
New York.....	101.2	107.2	96.2	88.2	104.7	94.6	108.1
Norfolk.....	89.2	98.8	99.5	70.2	80.8	93.6	92.2
Philadelphia.....	89.7	98.1	98.2	73.1	88.6	92.6	90.7
Pittsburgh.....	92.2	97.9	97.4	81.9	78.1	94.2	96.6
Portland, Maine.....	91.2	103.5	94.4	57.4	131.9	91.3	93.4
Portland, Oregon.....	88.2	97.3	93.4	54.6	113.5	93.8	98.6
Richmond.....	89.4	93.1	97.0	71.9	90.0	95.0	97.7
St. Louis.....	92.9	97.9	94.5	81.0	95.4	99.2	96.1
San Francisco.....	97.3	99.1	100.3	81.5	76.0	103.0	116.5
Scranton.....	91.8	99.5	93.2	75.7	83.6	88.1	100.1
Seattle.....	92.4	100.7	100.0	55.9	112.0	97.6	107.8
Washington, D. C.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

<sup>1</sup> See explanation of method given on pp. 1019 and 1020.<sup>2</sup> See the Works Progress Administration publication "Intercity differences in costs of living in March 1935, 59 Cities," Research Monograph XII, for the items included in the "maintenance" budget.

## COST OF LIVING AND EARNINGS OF WORKERS IN CHILE, 1928 TO 1939 <sup>1</sup>

THE average worker's family in Chile, calculated to be composed of husband, wife, and 2 children under 14 years of age, earned in 1939 an average of 417.95 pesos <sup>2</sup> per month and spent 377.17 pesos, leaving a balance of 40.78 pesos, according to a study made by the Chilean Commissioner General of Foods and Prices (*Comisario General de Subsistencias y Precios*). For this study only workers in industry and commerce were included, omitting agricultural workers and domestic servants. In the investigations which were made, the working people of Chile were found to be distributed according to the following percentages: Industrial workers, including mining,

<sup>1</sup> Data are from Chile, Direccion General del Trabajo, *Revista del Trabajo* (Santiago), May 1940.<sup>2</sup> Average official exchange rate of Chilean peso, in 1939=5.17 cents.



industry, and commerce, 42.45 percent; agricultural workers, 44.95 percent; and domestic servants, 12.60 percent.

The following table shows the monthly income and cost of living of the typical worker's family for each year from 1928 through 1939, with the difference in all cases except 1939 representing a deficit.

*Income and Cost of Living of Typical Worker's Family in Chile, 1928 to 1939*

Year	Monthly income	Monthly cost of living	Deficit or surplus <sup>1</sup>	Year	Monthly income	Monthly cost of living	Deficit or surplus <sup>1</sup>
	<i>Pesos</i>	<i>Pesos</i>	<i>Pesos</i>		<i>Pesos</i>	<i>Pesos</i>	<i>Pesos</i>
1928.....	179.57	202.14	-22.57	1934.....	188.00	285.02	-98.02
1929.....	179.50	218.83	-39.22	1935.....	229.25	291.89	-62.64
1930.....	119.50	216.51	-97.01	1936.....	264.50	316.55	-5.05
1931.....	118.50	217.96	-99.46	1937.....	264.50	316.55	-37.07
1932.....	126.25	229.85	-103.60	1938.....	355.25	372.14	-16.89
1933.....	154.00	285.71	-131.71	1939.....	417.95	377.17	40.78

<sup>1</sup> The figures given for 1929, 1936, and 1937 do not balance. As data are not available to determine the column in which the discrepancy occurs in each case, the figures from the sources are reproduced as given there.

## *Retail Prices*

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### FOOD PRICES IN AUGUST 1940

THE average cost of food declined by 1.2 percent between July 16 and August 13, reaching the lowest level since April of this year. Increases in beef, pork, fish, and butter prices were offset by seasonal decreases in prices of fresh fruits and vegetables. This decline was general throughout the country. At mid-August levels, retail food prices were 96.2 percent of the 1935-39 average, according to the Bureau's index, or 1.2 percent lower than in July. Since August 13, preliminary reports indicate some rise in certain staple foodstuffs and continued advances in the prices of meats, including beef, pork, and lamb. These increased prices resulted in part from smaller marketings of livestock in August following unusually large sales during the first half of 1940 and greatly reduced meat prices during the spring. They were probably also influenced to some extent by the rise in consumer income.

Prices of foods typically bought by wage earners and lower-salaried workers have increased on the average about 3 percent since August of last year. Of the 54 foods included in the Bureau's index, 32 were quoted at higher prices in mid-August 1940 than they were a year earlier, in the month prior to the outbreak of war in Europe. The principal exceptions were lower prices for lard, ham, bacon and salt pork, oranges, potatoes, coffee, and sugar.

#### *Details by Commodity Groups*

Prices of cereals and bakery products declined in August for the third consecutive month in line with the general reduction in prices for wheat and wheat flour, which decreased in 35 of the 51 cities included in the index. Retail prices of flour have shown a decline since May, but on August 13 were more than 15 percent higher than a year ago. Prices for white bread were slightly higher in 5 cities and lower in 3 cities; so that there was no change in the average price for the 51 cities combined. Average prices of whole-wheat bread also remained unchanged, while a decrease of about 1 percent was reported for rye bread. Of the other items in the group, prices of macaroni and vanilla cookies declined; soda crackers increased, while corn meal and corn flakes remained unchanged.

Changes in meat prices from mid-July to mid-August resulted in an increase of 0.7 percent in total meat costs to moderate-income families. Prices of almost all meats rose except lamb, which declined seasonally. Prices for roasting chickens declined by 4.5 percent. The largest advances were reported for round steak (2.1 percent) and rib roast (2.0 percent). Prices of pork chops, which had been advancing rapidly during the past few months, were about 35 percent higher than in February, when they reached a 6-year low. Currently, they are selling for about 2 percent more than in August of last year. Meats as a group were 3.8 percent higher than last year.

A seasonal increase of 0.2 percent in the cost of dairy products was due to generally higher prices for butter. The only changes in prices of delivered milk were an increase of 1 cent per quart in Cleveland and a decrease of 2 cents per quart in Kansas City. These changes were not large enough to affect the average price of milk for the 51 cities combined. Prices of cheese declined 0.4 percent, while no change was reported for evaporated milk.

Egg prices advanced seasonally 4.4 percent and were about 1 percent higher than in August 1939.

As is usual in August, the cost of fresh fruits and vegetables purchased by wage earners declined, with markedly reduced prices reported for apples, carrots, onions, and potatoes. These items decreased 22.7 percent, 23.4 percent, 27.6 percent, and 16.0 percent, respectively. Prices of sweetpotatoes also declined by 3 percent. Prices of green beans and spinach advanced sharply, as is usual at this time of year, showing increases of 26.3 percent and 21.7 percent, respectively. Prices of oranges advanced less than 1 percent, while cabbage and lettuce prices remained unchanged. The cost of canned and dried fruits and vegetables declined slightly during the month, the largest change being a decrease of 1.2 percent for canned tomatoes. Prices of canned peaches and peas were also slightly lower.

Coffee prices in retail stores reached a new all-time low in August, as large supplies cut off from the European markets have resulted in continued declines in the wholesale market.

Costs of fats and oils declined 0.5 percent due to a reduction of about 1 percent in the prices of lard and oleomargarine, and lower prices for vegetable shortening and salad dressing.

Sugar prices continued to decline and are at the lowest level since May 1939.

Indexes of retail food costs, August and July 1940 and August 1939, are shown in table 1.



TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Costs of Food in 51 Large Cities Combined,<sup>1</sup> by Commodity Groups,**August and July 1940, and August 1939*

[1935-39=100]

Commodity group	1940		1939
	Aug. 13 <sup>2</sup>	July 16	Aug. 15
All foods.....	96.2	97.4	93.5
Cereals and bakery products.....	96.8	<sup>3</sup> 97.4	93.4
Meats.....	99.2	98.6	95.7
Dairy products.....	99.0	<sup>3</sup> 98.8	93.1
Eggs.....	91.7	87.8	90.7
Fruits and vegetables.....	93.5	100.4	92.4
Fresh.....	93.4	102.2	92.8
Canned.....	92.3	92.7	91.6
Dried.....	100.8	100.9	90.3
Beverages.....	92.3	92.8	94.9
Fats and oils.....	81.7	82.1	84.5
Sugar.....	95.4	96.1	95.6

<sup>1</sup> Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.

<sup>2</sup> Preliminary.

<sup>3</sup> Revised.

Retail prices for 23 of the 54 foods included in the index were lower in August than in July, 16 were higher, and for 15 there was no change. Compared with a year ago, 14 of 52 foods were lower, 32 were higher, and for 6 there was no change. No yearly comparison can be made for vanilla cookies or salad dressing as they were not priced a year ago. Average prices of each of the 63 foods priced for 51 cities combined are shown in table 2 for July and August 1940 and August 1939.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 63 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined,<sup>1</sup> August and July 1940, and August 1939*

Article	1940		1939
	Aug. 13 <sup>2</sup>	July 16	Aug. 15
Cereals and bakery products:			
Cereals:			
Flour, wheat.....10 pounds	Cents 41.6	Cents 42.6	Cents 35.8
Macaroni.....pound	14.0	14.1	14.0
Wheat cereal <sup>3</sup> .....28-oz. pkg	23.6	23.7	24.2
Corn flakes.....8-oz. pkg	7.2	7.2	7.0
Corn meal.....pound	4.2	4.2	4.0
Rice <sup>3</sup> .....do	8.0	7.9	7.5
Rolled oats <sup>3</sup> .....do	7.2	7.2	7.1
Bakery products:			
Bread, white.....do	8.1	8.1	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat.....do	9.0	9.0	8.8
Bread, rye.....do	9.4	9.5	9.2
Vanilla cookies.....do	24.8	24.9	-----
Soda crackers.....do	15.1	15.0	14.8
Meats:			
Beef:			
Round steak.....do	38.6	37.8	36.4
Rib roast.....do	29.8	29.3	28.9
Chuck roast.....do	23.8	23.5	22.5
Veal:			
Cutlets.....do	43.1	42.4	42.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Average Retail Prices of 63 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined,<sup>1</sup> August and July 1940, and August 1939—Continued

Article	1940		1939
	Aug. 13	July 16	Aug. 15
<b>Meats—Continued.</b>			
Pork:	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Chops.....pound	31.5	30.9	30.9
Bacon, sliced.....do	26.6	26.4	30.4
Ham, sliced <sup>2</sup> .....do	44.0	43.6	46.4
Ham, whole.....do	24.8	24.5	27.4
Salt pork.....do	14.1	14.0	15.4
Lamb:			
Leg.....do	28.8	29.1	27.6
Rib chops.....do	38.2	38.2	36.7
Poultry:			
Roasting chickens.....do	31.6	33.1	30.9
Fish:			
Fresh, frozen.....do	( <sup>3</sup> )	( <sup>3</sup> )	( <sup>3</sup> )
Salmon, pink.....16-oz. can	15.9	15.8	12.8
Salmon, red <sup>2</sup> .....do	25.8	25.8	23.1
Dairy products:			
Butter.....pound	34.1	33.9	30.7
Cheese.....do	25.5	<sup>4</sup> 25.6	24.7
Milk, fresh (delivered).....quart	12.6	<sup>4</sup> 12.6	12.0
Milk, fresh (store).....do	11.3	11.3	11.0
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) <sup>3</sup> .....do	12.2	12.2	11.7
Milk, evaporated.....14½-oz. can	7.0	7.0	6.7
Eggs.....dozen	32.3	30.9	32.0
<b>Fruits and vegetables:</b>			
Fresh:			
Apples.....pound	5.1	6.6	4.4
Bananas.....do	6.4	6.4	6.1
Oranges.....dozen	31.2	31.0	31.5
Beans, green.....pound	9.6	7.6	7.2
Cabbage.....do	2.9	2.9	3.9
Carrots.....bunch	4.9	6.4	4.6
Lettuce.....head	7.5	7.5	8.4
Onions.....pound	4.2	5.8	3.6
Potatoes.....15 pounds	30.9	36.8	34.4
Spinach.....pound	7.3	6.0	7.8
Sweetpotatoes.....do	6.4	6.6	5.5
Canned:			
Peaches.....No. 2½ can	17.1	17.2	17.1
Pineapple.....do	21.0	21.0	21.0
Beans, green <sup>2</sup> .....No. 2 can	9.9	10.0	10.0
Corn.....do	10.5	10.5	10.4
Peas.....do	13.6	13.7	13.6
Tomatoes.....do	8.4	8.5	8.6
Dried:			
Prunes.....pound	9.8	9.8	8.8
Navy beans.....do	6.6	6.6	5.8
Beverages:			
Coffee.....do	21.2	21.3	22.3
Tea.....¼ pound	17.5	17.5	17.2
Cocoa <sup>2</sup> .....8-oz. can	9.1	9.1	8.6
Fats and oils:			
Lard.....pound	9.2	9.3	9.9
Shortening, other than lard:			
In cartons.....do	11.7	11.8	11.7
In other containers.....do	19.1	19.2	20.2
Salad dressing <sup>4</sup> .....pint	20.6	20.7	
Oleomargarine.....pound	15.8	16.0	16.5
Peanut butter.....do	18.0	18.0	17.9
Sugar and sweets:			
Sugar.....10 pounds	51.3	51.7	51.7
Corn sirup <sup>2</sup> .....24-oz. can	13.6	13.6	13.7
Molasses <sup>2</sup> .....18-oz. can	13.4	13.4	13.6

<sup>1</sup> Since September 1939, supermarket prices have been substituted for those of certain service stores.<sup>2</sup> Preliminary.<sup>3</sup> Not included in index—prices for these items for August 1939 are weighted averages.<sup>4</sup> Revised.<sup>5</sup> Composite prices not computed.<sup>6</sup> Effective January 1940, salad dressing replaced mayonnaise in the food cost index.

## Details by Cities

From the middle of July to the middle of August, average food costs to wage earners declined in 42 cities, increased in 5, and in 4 were unchanged. The largest decreases were reported for Baltimore (3.3 percent), Fall River (2.9 percent), and Manchester (2.8 percent), and were due to sharp local declines in the prices of fruit and vegetables. Increases in 5 cities—Memphis, Seattle, Birmingham, Houston, and San Francisco—were due to fairly large advances for meats, and to the fact that there was less change in prices of fruits and vegetables than in other parts of the country.

Indexes of food costs by cities are presented in table 3 for August and July 1940 and August 1939.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Cities,<sup>1</sup> August and July 1940 and August 1939

[1935-39=100]

Region and city	1940		1939	Region and city	1940		1939
	Aug. 13 <sup>2</sup>	July 16	Aug. 15		Aug. 13 <sup>2</sup>	July 16	Aug. 15
United States.....	96.2	97.4	93.5	South Atlantic:			
New England:				Atlanta.....	92.2	93.1	92.5
Boston.....	95.7	<sup>3</sup> 98.1	93.5	Baltimore.....	94.6	97.8	94.7
Bridgeport.....	96.7	98.1	93.2	Charleston, S. C.....	95.5	96.6	95.1
Fall River.....	96.3	99.2	95.4	Jacksonville.....	100.0	<sup>3</sup> 100.8	95.8
Manchester.....	96.5	99.4	94.9	Norfolk.....	96.4	<sup>3</sup> 96.4	93.6
New Haven.....	96.2	97.2	93.7	Richmond.....	92.0	93.4	92.2
Portland, Maine.....	95.1	97.2	94.4	Savannah.....	98.1	99.3	96.7
Providence.....	96.5	98.7	93.7	Washington, D. C.....	96.3	98.7	94.1
Middle Atlantic:				East South Central:			
Buffalo.....	97.8	99.6	94.5	Birmingham.....	93.2	92.6	90.2
Newark.....	98.5	100.2	95.6	Louisville.....	93.3	<sup>3</sup> 94.5	92.1
New York.....	97.8	98.6	95.8	Memphis.....	93.3	<sup>3</sup> 91.9	89.7
Philadelphia.....	94.2	95.7	93.0	Mobile.....	97.8	<sup>3</sup> 97.8	95.0
Pittsburgh.....	95.4	<sup>3</sup> 97.4	92.5	West South Central:			
Rochester.....	98.8	<sup>3</sup> 100.1	92.3	Dallas.....	92.1	92.2	91.7
Scranton.....	95.5	98.1	92.1	Houston.....	99.4	98.8	97.8
East North Central:				Little Rock.....	93.4	95.8	94.0
Chicago.....	96.7	97.8	92.3	New Orleans.....	101.5	101.5	97.6
Cincinnati.....	94.1	95.0	90.4	Mountain:			
Cleveland.....	98.5	<sup>3</sup> 99.0	93.6	Butte.....	97.8	98.6	94.1
Columbus, Ohio.....	90.1	91.8	88.1	Denver.....	92.6	94.2	92.7
Detroit.....	95.3	<sup>3</sup> 97.2	90.6	Salt Lake City.....	97.7	100.1	94.6
Indianapolis.....	95.3	<sup>3</sup> 95.3	90.7	Pacific:			
Milwaukee.....	95.5	<sup>3</sup> 96.7	91.1	Los Angeles.....	97.5	98.2	94.6
Peoria.....	97.7	98.4	93.4	Portland, Oreg.....	99.8	100.1	96.1
Springfield, Ill.....	96.6	97.1	94.1	San Francisco.....	96.2	95.9	93.8
West North Central:				Seattle.....	100.4	<sup>3</sup> 99.1	94.5
Kansas City.....	89.2	91.4	91.5				
Minneapolis.....	95.4	<sup>3</sup> 96.2	95.0				
Omaha.....	96.7	97.2	92.3				
St. Louis.....	96.1	97.1	93.8				
St. Paul.....	94.2	95.6	94.3				

<sup>1</sup> Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights.

<sup>2</sup> Preliminary.

<sup>3</sup> Revised.



### *The New Series of Indexes of Retail Costs of Food*

A new series of index numbers of retail food costs and revised average prices for 51 cities combined has been published currently in the pamphlet, "Retail Prices," since May 1940. The May 1940 issue contained new indexes for the 51 large cities combined, by commodity groups and for all foods for each of these cities for the period from January 1935 to May 1940, inclusive.

Comparable indexes for the period January 1923 to 1934, inclusive, have been computed by converting indexes from the 1923-25 base to the 1935-39 base. These indexes for the 51 large cities combined by commodity groups and indexes of average retail costs of all foods for each of the 51 cities are presented in the pamphlet "Retail Prices," August 1940.

Average retail prices for all food items priced were recomputed for the 51 cities combined to take account of the current relative consumption of each article in each city as indicated by the 1934-36 study of expenditures. These average retail prices are also presented in the August issue of "Retail Prices." This pamphlet is available upon request.

A full discussion of the Bureau's new indexes of cost of living is presented in the August 1940 issue of the "Monthly Labor Review" in the article entitled, "The Bureau of Labor Statistics' New Index of Cost of Living."

## Wholesale Prices

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### WHOLESALE PRICES IN AUGUST 1940<sup>1</sup>

WEAKENING prices for grains, hides, and crude rubber, together with seasonal declines in wholesale prices of fruits and vegetables, contributed to a decline of 0.4 percent in the Bureau of Labor Statistics index of wholesale commodity prices during August. The decline more than offset the July gain and the all-commodity index dropped to the low point of the year, 77.4 percent of the 1926 average. Notwithstanding the decrease, the index is over 3 percent above the August 1939 level.

Hides and leather products registered the largest group decline, 2.1 percent. Farm products dropped 1.4 percent; miscellaneous commodities, 1.3 percent; chemicals and allied products, 0.4 percent; foods, 0.3 percent; metals and metal products, 0.2 percent; and textile products, 0.1 percent. The fuel and lighting materials and house-furnishing-goods group indexes remained unchanged at the July level, and building materials advanced 0.9 percent during the month.

Compared with the levels of a year ago, each of the group indexes, except fuel and lighting materials, shows a substantial gain. The increases range from 1.8 percent for metals and metal products to 7.5 percent for farm products. The fuel and lighting materials group index is 2.1 percent lower than it was a year ago because of sharp decreases in prices of petroleum and its products. Coal and coke prices on the other hand averaged higher.

The raw materials and semimanufactured commodities group indexes fell 1.3 percent and 1 percent, respectively, to new lows for the year. Manufactured commodity prices, on the contrary, averaged fractionally higher than for July. Moderate declines occurred in the indexes for the large groups "All commodities other than farm products" and "All commodities other than farm products and foods."

Although the July gain in wholesale commodity prices was out-balanced by a drop of 0.4 percent in August, the August index, which is the low for the year, is only 0.1 percent below the previous 1940 low point reached in June.

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<sup>1</sup> More detailed information on wholesale prices is given in the Wholesale Price pamphlet and will be furnished upon request.

The farm products group index fell 1.4 percent to the lowest point reached since August a year ago. Declines of 3.5 percent for other farm products, and 2.5 percent for grains, particularly barley, oats, rye, and wheat, were mainly responsible for the decline. Quotations were lower also for sheep, live poultry, cotton, fruits, onions, potatoes, and wool. The livestock and poultry subgroup advanced 2.4 percent as a result of higher prices for cattle and hogs. Additional farm product items for which higher prices were reported are eggs, hay, fresh milk, and tobacco.

Seasonal declines in prices for fruits and vegetables, together with lower prices for cereal products and other foods such as coffee, lard, oleomargarine, sugar, and vegetable oils, accounted for the decline of 0.3 percent in the foods group index. Prices were higher for butter, cheese, rice, beef, lamb, and fresh and cured pork.

Sharp decreases in prices for hides, skins, and leather brought the hides and leather products group index down 2.1 percent to the low point of the year. Average wholesale prices for shoes and other leather manufactures were steady.

In the textile products group, moderate decreases occurred in prices for osnaburg, tire fabrics, cotton yarns, silk and worsted yarns, burlap, jute, and cordage. Prices for clothing registered a fractional advance.

Marked decreases in prices for Pennsylvania crude petroleum, gasoline, and kerosene counterbalanced higher prices for coal, and the fuel and lighting material group index remained unchanged at 71.1 percent of the 1926 average.

The decline of 0.2 percent in the metals and metal products group index was caused by lower prices for nonferrous metals such as aluminum, copper, lead, quicksilver, tin, and the manufactured products of these metals. Price advances were reported for scrap steel and concrete reinforcing bars.

The building materials group index rose 0.9 percent to the highest level reached since November 1937 because of sharp advances in prices for lumber, turpentine, copal gum, and tung oil. Lower prices were reported for paint materials such as red lead, litharge, zinc oxide, linseed oil, and rosin.

Falling prices for fats and oils, fish scrap, and ergot caused the chemical and allied products group index to drop 0.4 percent during August. Prices for ethyl alcohol, quinine sulphate, mixed fertilizers, and most fertilizer materials advanced.

A minor advance in prices for stoves did not affect the housefurnishing goods group index. It has remained unchanged since May at 88.5.



Decreases of 10.5 percent for cattle feed, 7.2 percent for crude rubber, and lower prices for boxboard, cylinder oil, and soap, caused the miscellaneous commodities group index to fall 1.3 percent during August. Wood pulp and book paper prices advanced.

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for July and August 1940 and August 1939 and the percentage changes from a month ago and a year ago are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, August 1940, with Comparisons for July 1940 and August 1939*

[1926 = 100]

Group and subgroup	August 1940	July 1940	Change from a month ago	August 1939	Change from a year ago
			Percent		Percent
All commodities.....	77.4	77.7	-0.4	75.0	+3.2
Farm products.....	65.6	66.5	-1.4	61.0	+7.5
Grains.....	59.3	60.8	-2.5	51.5	+15.1
Livestock and poultry.....	71.5	69.8	+2.4	66.0	+8.3
Other farm products.....	63.3	65.6	-3.5	60.1	+5.3
Foods.....	70.1	70.3	-.3	67.2	+4.3
Dairy products.....	74.3	73.7	+.8	67.9	+9.4
Cereal products.....	75.1	76.2	-1.4	71.9	+4.5
Fruits and vegetables.....	63.2	69.0	-8.4	58.5	+8.0
Meats.....	76.1	72.9	+4.4	73.7	+3.3
Other foods.....	60.4	61.3	-1.5	60.3	+.2
Hides and leather products.....	98.9	99.0	-2.1	92.7	+4.5
Shoes.....	107.0	107.0	0	100.8	+6.2
Hides and skins.....	77.1	84.6	-8.9	77.2	-.1
Leather.....	88.3	91.4	-3.4	84.0	+5.1
Other leather products.....	90.7	90.7	0	97.1	+2.7
Textile products.....	72.3	72.4	-.1	67.8	+6.6
Clothing.....	85.6	85.3	+.4	81.5	+5.0
Cotton goods.....	68.6	68.8	-.3	65.5	+4.7
Hosiery and underwear.....	61.5	61.5	0	61.5	0
Rayon.....	29.5	29.5	0	28.5	+3.5
Silk.....	43.0	43.3	-.7	44.3	-2.9
Woolen and worsted goods.....	83.7	83.9	-.2	75.5	+10.9
Other textile products.....	71.9	73.0	-1.5	63.7	+12.9
Fuel and lighting materials.....	71.1	71.1	0	72.6	-2.1
Anthracite.....	79.0	78.1	+1.2	72.1	+9.6
Bituminous coal.....	96.2	95.8	+.4	96.0	+.2
Coke.....	109.6	109.6	0	104.2	+5.2
Electricity.....	(1)	(1)		75.8	
Gas.....	84.5	88.2	-4.2	86.7	-2.5
Petroleum and products.....	49.2	49.5	-.6	51.7	-4.8
Metals and metal products.....	94.9	95.1	-.2	93.2	+1.8
Agricultural implements.....	92.3	92.4	-.1	93.5	-1.3
Farm machinery.....	93.5	93.5	0	94.7	-1.3
Iron and steel.....	94.8	94.6	+.2	95.1	-.3
Motor vehicles <sup>1</sup> .....	95.6	95.6	0	92.5	+3.4
Nonferrous metals.....	79.1	80.8	-2.1	74.6	+6.0
Plumbing and heating.....	80.5	80.5	0	79.3	+1.5
Building materials.....	93.5	92.7	+.9	89.6	+4.4
Brick and tile.....	90.1	90.1	0	90.5	-.4
Cement.....	90.6	90.6	0	91.3	-.8
Lumber.....	100.3	96.7	+3.7	91.8	+9.3
Paint and paint materials.....	84.2	84.6	-.5	82.1	+2.6
Plumbing and heating.....	80.5	80.5	0	79.3	+1.5
Structural steel.....	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials.....	93.4	93.6	-.2	89.5	+4.4
Chemicals and allied products.....	76.7	77.0	-.4	74.2	+3.4
Chemicals.....	84.8	84.9	-.1	83.8	+1.2
Drugs and pharmaceuticals.....	96.2	95.9	+.3	77.1	+24.8
Fertilizer materials.....	68.0	67.3	+1.0	65.5	+3.8
Mixed fertilizers.....	74.2	72.8	+1.9	73.1	+1.5
Oils and fats.....	39.1	43.0	-9.1	40.6	-3.7

<sup>1</sup> Data not yet available.

<sup>2</sup> Preliminary revision.

TABLE 1.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, August 1940, with Comparisons for July 1940 and August 1939—Continued

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	August 1940	July 1940	Change from a month ago	August 1939	Change from a year ago
			Percent		Percent
Housefurnishing goods.....	88.5	88.5	0	85.6	+3.4
Furnishings.....	94.8	94.8	0	90.0	+5.3
Furniture.....	81.8	81.8	0	81.1	+9
Miscellaneous.....	76.7	77.7	-1.3	73.3	+4.6
Automobile tires and tubes.....	58.8	58.8	0	60.5	-2.8
Cattle feed.....	74.5	83.2	-10.5	68.4	+8.9
Paper and pulp.....	93.5	93.5	0	80.0	+16.9
Rubber, crude.....	41.0	44.2	-7.2	34.9	+17.5
Other miscellaneous.....	82.8	83.5	-.8	81.3	+1.8
Raw materials.....	69.8	70.7	-1.3	66.5	+5.0
Semimanufactured articles.....	77.0	77.8	-1.0	74.5	+3.4
Manufactured products.....	81.0	80.9	+1	79.1	+2.4
All commodities other than farm products.....	79.9	80.0	-.1	77.9	+2.6
All commodities other than farm products and foods.....	82.0	82.3	-.4	80.1	+2.4

## Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to August 1940

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1939, inclusive, and by months from August 1939 to August 1940, inclusive, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	Housefurnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
By years:											
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929.....	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932.....	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933.....	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936.....	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937.....	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938.....	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939.....	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
By months:											
1939:											
August.....	61.0	67.2	92.7	67.8	72.6	93.2	89.6	74.2	85.6	73.3	75.0
September.....	68.7	75.1	98.5	71.7	72.8	94.8	90.9	76.6	86.6	76.6	79.1
October.....	67.1	73.3	104.6	75.5	73.9	95.8	92.8	77.6	87.8	77.6	79.4
November.....	67.3	72.3	104.0	76.4	74.1	96.0	93.0	77.4	88.4	77.0	79.2
December.....	67.6	71.9	103.7	78.0	72.8	96.0	93.0	77.7	88.5	77.4	79.2
1940:											
January.....	69.1	71.7	103.6	77.9	72.7	95.8	93.4	77.7	87.9	77.7	79.4
February.....	68.7	71.1	102.4	75.4	72.4	95.3	93.2	77.5	88.0	77.3	78.7
March.....	67.9	70.2	101.8	74.0	72.2	95.5	93.3	77.0	88.0	76.9	78.4
April.....	69.4	71.6	101.8	72.9	71.8	94.5	92.5	76.8	88.4	77.7	78.6
May.....	67.9	71.4	101.3	72.9	71.7	94.5	92.5	76.7	88.5	77.7	78.4
June.....	66.2	70.3	99.2	72.6	71.4	94.7	92.4	76.1	88.5	77.3	77.5
July.....	66.5	70.3	99.0	72.4	71.1	95.1	92.7	77.0	88.5	77.7	77.7
August.....	65.6	70.1	96.9	72.3	71.1	94.9	93.5	76.7	88.5	76.7	77.4

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was given in Serial No. R. 1069, Wholesale Prices, December and Year 1939.

TABLE 3.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Special Groups of Commodities  
[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
By years:						By months—Con.					
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1939—Con.					
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.8	91.6	October	72.3	83.1	82.3	82.0	83.8
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	November	72.4	82.1	82.0	81.6	84.0
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	December	73.3	82.0	81.7	81.6	83.9
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	1940:					
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	January	73.8	81.7	81.7	81.5	83.9
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	February	72.7	79.9	81.4	80.8	83.2
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	March	72.0	79.7	81.1	80.5	82.9
By months:						April	73.0	78.2	81.2	80.5	82.5
1939:						May	72.0	78.3	81.3	80.5	82.5
August	66.5	74.5	79.1	77.9	80.1	June	70.7	77.9	80.5	79.8	82.2
September	72.6	81.8	81.9	81.3	82.1	July	70.7	77.8	80.9	80.0	82.3
						August	69.8	77.0	81.0	79.9	82.0

### Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly fluctuations in the major commodity group classifications during July and August are shown by the index numbers in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, July and August 1940

(1926=100)

Commodity group	Aug. 31	Aug. 24	Aug. 17	Aug. 10	Aug. 3	July 27	July 20	July 13	July 6
All commodities	77.7	77.2	77.2	76.9	77.0	77.3	77.6	77.9	77.5
Farm products	66.7	65.6	65.3	65.2	65.2	66.0	67.3	68.0	66.7
Foods	71.4	70.0	70.1	69.3	69.1	69.6	70.4	71.0	70.4
Hides and leather products	97.1	97.0	97.7	97.9	98.1	99.0	99.9	99.9	100.3
Textile products	71.7	71.7	71.7	71.8	71.8	71.8	71.9	72.0	71.9
Fuel and lighting materials	71.7	71.7	71.7	71.6	71.7	71.8	71.8	71.9	72.0
Metals and metal products	95.0	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.9	94.9
Building materials	93.5	93.4	93.1	92.8	92.8	92.7	92.8	92.7	92.6
Chemicals and allied products	76.5	76.4	76.5	76.7	76.8	76.8	76.9	77.0	77.1
Housefurnishing goods	90.0	90.0	90.0	90.0	90.0	90.0	90.0	90.0	90.0
Miscellaneous	76.2	76.4	76.4	76.7	77.4	77.7	77.3	77.2	77.0
Raw materials	70.2	69.6	69.4	69.4	69.4	70.0	70.8	71.4	70.7
Semimanufactured articles	76.8	76.5	76.7	77.2	77.3	77.5	77.8	77.8	78.0
Manufactured products	81.7	81.2	81.3	80.8	80.8	81.0	81.1	81.2	80.9
All commodities other than farm products	80.1	79.7	79.8	79.5	79.6	79.8	79.9	80.1	79.9
All commodities other than farm products and foods	82.2	82.1	82.1	82.2	82.3	82.4	82.4	82.4	82.4



# *Trend of Employment and Pay Rolls*

## SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR AUGUST 1940

### *Total Nonagricultural Employment*

AN INCREASE of over 430,000 workers from July to August brought the employment level<sup>1</sup> in nonagricultural occupations to nearly 36,000,000 persons, 1,130,000 more than a year ago. The gains in factory employment and pay rolls were widespread. More than 310,000 factory workers were returned to jobs in August, the gain being more than double the usual seasonal increase. Employment in the Federal, State, and local government services increased by more than 40,000. More than 40,000 additional workers were employed on Federal and private construction projects; 17,000 were added in the field of transportation and public utilities; 8,000 in the mining group of industries. In the financial and service industries there was a net gain of approximately 7,000 workers between July and August. In wholesale and retail trade combined, employment declined by about 4,000, reflecting midsummer recession in retail trade activity.

The above summary excludes emergency employment which, as a result of the following changes, showed a net increase of 50,000: A decrease of 4,000 on projects operated by the Work Projects Administration and increases of 10,000 in the Civilian Conservation Corps and 44,000 on the out-of-school work program of the National Youth Administration.

### *Industrial and Business Employment*

Employment gains were reported by 77 of the 90 manufacturing industries surveyed and by 9 of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries covered. Pay-roll gains were shown by 79 of the manufacturing and 9 of the nonmanufacturing industries.

Total factory employment rose 4.1 percent, indicating the return of 320,000 workers to jobs. Weekly factory pay rolls showed a 7.6 percent expansion (\$13,800,000). The seasonally expected July-August increases are 1.8 percent in manufacturing employment and 3.1 percent in factory pay rolls. As in immediately preceding months, expansion in industries manufacturing materials for national defense continued to highlight the employment picture. New highs in employment were registered in shipbuilding (98,500 wage earners), aircraft (80,900), engines (55,900), machine tools (67,200), aluminum

(28,900), and explosives (8,300). The gains in these industries over July were 6,000, 5,200, 2,500, 800, 1,200, and 500, respectively. Other manufacturing industries stimulated directly or indirectly by war-material orders showed large employment gains as follows: Sawmills (16,200), steel (12,600), foundries (9,900), men's clothing (7,900), hardware (6,900), woolen and worsted goods (6,400), and electrical machinery (6,200). Canning and preserving firms showed a seasonal employment increase of 71,000 wage earners, and women's clothing factories a seasonal gain of 34,500. Factories manufacturing automobiles and automobile parts expanded their forces by 16,500 workers, reflecting production of new models. The meat-packing industry reported a larger-than-seasonal lay-off of 5,500 workers and the baking industries a reduction of 800 workers.

Bituminous-coal mine employment showed a gain of 2.0 percent coupled with a pay-roll increase of 10.8 percent, reflecting a stepping up of production in response to increased industrial demands. Metal mines and quarries reported small employment gains, while declines were shown in anthracite mining and crude-oil production employment. Slight employment declines in the telephone and telegraph and street railway and bus industries were offset by a small employment gain in the electric light and power industry. Hotels and laundries reported small contraseasonal employment gains, while brokerage firms curtailed employment by 2.7 percent.

Retail stores recorded an employment decline of 0.8 percent which was of about seasonal proportions. Department store employment fell 1.9 percent. Seasonal and variety stores reported 1.3 percent fewer workers. Other lines showing reduced employment were groceries (0.7 percent), automobiles (1.1 percent), women's clothing (3.5 percent), men's clothing (3.6 percent), and shoes (5.2 percent). Among the retail lines reporting increased employment were filling stations, electrical supplies, plumbing equipment, cigars, drugs, jewelry, and fuel and ice.

Wholesale trade firms reported an employment gain of 0.9 percent which corresponded closely to the average percentage change between July and August for the past 11 years. Gains were general among the various wholesale lines, the most pronounced seasonal percentage increases occurring among firms dealing in farm products (10.8 percent), jewelry and optical goods (8.2 percent), assemblers and country buyers (8.0 percent), general merchandise (4.3 percent), and farm supplies (3.2 percent).

Employment in the private building construction industry increased 5.2 percent. This was greater than seasonal, the 1939 August increase having been 0.8 percent, and the corresponding month gain during the 1932-1939 period having averaged 3 percent. Employment in August 1940 was 15.6 percent above that of August 1939. All the geographic divisions except the Mountain and West North Central

States reported employment increases over the month. The largest gain (23.7 percent) occurred in the East South Central States, primarily because of accelerated war-materials plant construction in Tennessee. Extensive hotel and residential construction in Florida contributed to an employment increase of 8.8 percent for the South Atlantic area. Substantial gains in California and Oregon resulted in an 8.1 percent gain in the Pacific States.

General contractors reported a 7.7 percent increase in employment while special trades contractors showed a 2.9 percent gain. Employment continued to increase in 11 of the 15 special building trades surveyed, principally plastering (10.7 percent), carpentering (8.9 percent), electrical contracting (5.0 percent) and glazing (4.0 percent). Recessions were reported in brick and stone masonry, 2.1 percent, and structural steel erection 4.6 percent. The reports on which these private building construction figures are based do not cover construction projects financed by the Work Projects Administration, the Public Works Administration, and the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, or by regular appropriations of the Federal, State, or local government.

The preliminary report of the Interstate Commerce Commission showed an employment gain of 0.9 percent or nearly 8,200 workers, between July and August. The total number employed in August was 1,059,364. Corresponding pay-roll figures for August were not available when this report was prepared. For July they were \$167,628,698, an increase of \$7,875,060 since June.

*Hours and earnings.*—The average hours worked per week by manufacturing wage earners were 38.4 in August, an increase of 3.2 percent from July. The corresponding average hourly earnings were 66.7 cents, an increase of less than 0.1 percent over the month. The average weekly earnings of factory workers were \$26.10, an increase of 3.3 percent since July. Wage rate increases were reported by 169 manufacturing establishments out of a total of approximately 26,200 establishments which supplied employment information to this Bureau in August. About 24,700 wage earners out of a total of approximately 5,000,000 covered in this survey were affected by these wage rate increases, which averaged 6.6 percent. Among them were 18 paper and pulp mills (affecting 5,917 workers), 3 woolen mills (1,788), and 15 men's clothing factories (1,664).

As the Bureau's survey does not cover all establishments in an industry, and furthermore as some firms may have failed to report wage changes, these figures should not be construed to represent the total number of wage changes occurring in manufacturing industries.

Of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hours are available, 11 showed gains in average hours worked per week, and 5 showed increases in average hourly earnings. Nine of the 16 non-



manufacturing industries surveyed reported gains in weekly earnings. The only significant wage increases in the group of nonmanufacturing industries surveyed were in street railways and busses, and in the distribution of natural gas; 1,600 workers employed on street railways and busses received a 1.5 percent wage rate increase and nearly 900 employees in the natural gas industry received increases ranging from 3 to 5 percent.

Employment and pay-roll increases, and average weekly earnings for August 1940 are given in table 1 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, for water transportation, and for class I railroads. Percentage changes over the month and year intervals are also given.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, August 1940 (Preliminary Figures)*

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings		
	Index, August 1940	Percentage change from—		Index, August 1940	Percentage change from—		Average in August 1940	Percentage change from—	
		July 1940	August 1939		July 1940	August 1939		July 1940	August 1939
All manufacturing industries combined <sup>1</sup>	(1923-25 = 100) 103.6	+4.1	+7.6	(1923-25 = 100) 103.8	+7.6	+15.7	\$26.10	+3.3	+7.6
Class I steam railroads <sup>2</sup>	59.3	+0.9	+5.4	( <sup>3</sup> )	( <sup>3</sup> )	( <sup>3</sup> )	( <sup>3</sup> )	( <sup>3</sup> )	( <sup>3</sup> )
Coal mining:	(1929 = 100)			(1929 = 100)					
Anthracite <sup>4</sup>	50.3	-1.0	+3.9	33.1	-9.3	-2.1	21.63	-8.5	-5.8
Bituminous <sup>4</sup>	86.6	+2.0	+6.5	83.3	+10.8	+11.6	25.37	+8.6	+4.8
Metalliferous mining	71.5	+7	+18.3	69.1	+8.5	+30.4	30.10	+7.7	+10.2
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	48.8	+1.4	+1.4	45.0	+3.5	+4.9	23.03	+2.0	+3.5
Crude petroleum production	63.4	-5	-4.9	59.1	-1	-4.8	34.11	+4	+2
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph <sup>5</sup>	78.6	-2	+2.7	100.8	-5	+4.6	\$31.47	-3	+1.9
Electric light and power <sup>5</sup>	92.9	+7	+2.6	107.6	+1.7	+5.3	\$35.29	+1.0	+2.7
Street railways and busses <sup>6</sup>	68.4	- ( <sup>8</sup> )	-1.1	70.3	+4	+6	\$33.77	+4	+1.8
Trade:									
Wholesale <sup>4</sup>	90.0	+9	+1.1	78.7	+5	+3.3	\$30.25	-4	+2.2
Retail <sup>4</sup>	88.4	-8	+2.4	81.3	-1.6	+4.2	\$21.54	-8	+1.8
Hotels (year-round) <sup>10</sup>	90.6	+3	+9	80.9	+4	+2.1	\$15.44	+1	+1.3
Laundries <sup>4</sup>	102.8	+3	+3.7	90.6	+7	+5.4	18.02	+3	+1.7
Dyeing and cleaning <sup>4</sup>	105.9	-2.1	+3.1	78.0	-2.4	+6.9	20.05	-4	+3.6
Brokerage	( <sup>9</sup> )	-2.7	-1.3	( <sup>9</sup> )	-5.4	-4.5	\$35.35	-2.7	-3.2
Insurance	( <sup>9</sup> )	+2	+1.8	( <sup>9</sup> )	-3	+3.4	\$36.26	-5	+1.6
Building construction	( <sup>9</sup> )	+5.2	+15.6	( <sup>9</sup> )	+6.7	+20.0	32.47	+1.4	+3.7
Water transportation <sup>11</sup>	81.0	+6	( <sup>9</sup> )	( <sup>9</sup> )	( <sup>9</sup> )	( <sup>9</sup> )	( <sup>9</sup> )	( <sup>9</sup> )	( <sup>9</sup> )

<sup>1</sup> Revised indexes—Adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures.

<sup>2</sup> Preliminary; source—Interstate Commerce Commission.

<sup>3</sup> Not available.

<sup>4</sup> Indexes adjusted to 1935 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet, "Employment and Pay Rolls."

<sup>5</sup> Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public-utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable with indexes published in pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in the Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940. Revised series available upon request.

<sup>6</sup> Average weekly earnings not strictly comparable with figures published in issues of the pamphlet dated earlier than January 1938, or in the Monthly Labor Review dated earlier than April 1938 (except for the January figures appearing in the March issue), as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

<sup>7</sup> Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.

<sup>8</sup> Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

<sup>9</sup> Indexes adjusted to 1933 census. Comparable series in November 1934 and subsequent issues of pamphlet or February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review.

<sup>10</sup> Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

<sup>11</sup> Based on estimates prepared by the United States Maritime Commission.

### Public Employment

The accelerated pace of the national defense program was reflected in employment figures for construction projects financed by regular Federal appropriations. Large gains on the construction of naval vessels and public roads together with appreciable increases on many other types of projects brought the number of workers employed up to 335,000 for the month ending August 15. Pay-roll disbursements of \$39,007,000 exceeded payments in the preceding month by \$4,360,000.

Contractors on low-rent projects of the United States Housing Authority added a few building-trades workers to their pay rolls during the month ending August 15. Pay-roll disbursements of \$5,602,000 to the 51,000 workers employed were \$267,000 more than in the preceding month.

Employment on construction projects financed by the Public Works Administration fell to 58,000 in the month ending August 15, a decrease of 18,000. Pay rolls of \$6,485,000 were \$1,229,000 less than in July.

The number of wage earners on construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation decreased approximately 100 in the month ending August 15. The 2,100 workers employed during the month were paid \$283,000, an increase of \$18,000 over the amount they received in the preceding month.

The effects of increased nonagricultural employment were felt on work-relief projects of the Work Projects Administration, where the number of persons employed decreased 4,000 in August. Pay-roll disbursements to the 1,647,000 workers on these projects totaled \$94,784,000, a decrease of \$246,000 from July. A decline of greater proportions occurred on Federal Agency projects under the Work Projects Administration, where employment dropped from 108,000 in July to 71,000 in August. Pay-roll disbursements for the month amounted to \$2,768,000.

The out-of-school work program of the National Youth Administration gave employment to an additional 44,000 persons in August. Total wage payments for the month amounted to \$4,778,000.

Employment in camps of the Civilian Conservation Corps showed a gain of 10,000 in August. Of the 326,200 on the pay roll, 290,600 were enrollees; 1,600, educational advisers; 200, nurses; and 33,800, supervisory and technical employees. Pay-roll disbursements for all groups of employees totaled \$14,421,000.

In the regular services of the Federal Government, employment increases were reported in the executive, legislative, and military branches, while the judicial service reported a decrease.

State-financed road projects furnished employment to an additional 4,000 workers in August. Of the 202,000 on the pay roll, 64,000 were engaged in the construction of new roads and 138,000 on main-

tenance. Pay-roll disbursements for both types of road work were \$15,045,000.

A summary of employment and pay-roll data in the regular Federal services and on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Summary of Employment and Pay Rolls in Regular Federal Services and on Projects Financed Wholly or Partially From Federal Funds, August and July 1940 (Preliminary Figures)

Class	Employment			Payrolls		
	August 1940	July 1940	Percentage change	August 1940	July 1940	Percentage change
Federal services:						
Executive <sup>1</sup> .....	1,038,229	1,023,552	+1.4	\$159,218,015	\$154,787,444	+2.9
Judicial.....	2,702	2,783	-2.9	642,475	699,287	-8.1
Legislative.....	6,011	5,985	+4	1,313,988	1,315,833	-.1
Military.....	549,290	515,822	+6.5	38,364,271	37,732,671	+1.7
Construction projects:						
Financed by regular Federal appropriations.....	334,593	317,691	+5.3	39,006,635	34,646,957	+12.6
USHA low-rent housing.....	50,695	50,526	+3	5,602,339	5,335,120	+5.0
Financed by PWA <sup>2</sup> .....	58,303	76,042	-23.3	6,484,992	7,714,121	-15.9
Financed by RFC <sup>3</sup> .....	2,133	2,213	-3.6	283,288	264,726	+7.0
Federal agency projects financed by Works Projects Administration.....	70,841	107,803	-34.3	2,768,053	4,376,523	-36.8
Projects operated by WPA.....	1,647,123	1,651,407	-.3	94,784,451	95,030,429	-.3
National Youth Administration:						
Student-work program <sup>4</sup> .....	0	0	-----	0	0	-----
Out-of-school program.....	240,067	195,917	+22.5	4,777,920	3,382,162	+41.3
Civilian Conservation Corps.....	326,244	316,548	+3.1	14,420,968	14,146,541	+1.9

<sup>1</sup> Includes force-account and supervisory and technical employees shown under other classifications to the extent of 138,543 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$19,454,796 for August 1940, and 134,071 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$18,137,390 for July 1940.

<sup>2</sup> Revised.

<sup>3</sup> Data covering PWA projects financed from National Industrial Recovery Act funds, Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, 1937 funds, and Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938 funds, are included. These data are not shown under projects financed by the Work Projects Administration. Includes 6,023 wage earners and \$682,614 pay roll for August 1940; 6,606 wage earners and \$681,795 pay roll for July 1940, covering Public Works Administration projects financed from Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds. Includes 49,781 wage earners and \$5,565,863 pay roll for August 1940; 66,769 wage earners and \$6,744,740 payroll for July 1940, covering Public Works Administration projects financed from funds provided by the Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938.

<sup>4</sup> Includes 1,173 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$181,105 for August 1940; 1,284 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$168,404 for July 1940 on projects financed by the RFC Mortgage Co.

<sup>5</sup> Not in operation during July and August.

## DETAILED REPORTS FOR BUSINESS AND INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYMENT, JULY 1940

IN ORDER to avoid delay in publication this section is omitted from this issue of the Monthly Labor Review. Those desiring this detailed information will find it in the July issue of the monthly pamphlet "Employment and Pay Rolls," copies of which will be gladly sent upon request to the Bureau.



## Recent Publications of Labor Interest

[The Bureau of Labor Statistics does not distribute the publications to which reference is made in this list, except those issued by the Bureau itself. For all others, please write to the respective publishing agencies mentioned.]

### Agriculture

*The composition of gross farm income since the Civil War.* By Frederick Strauss. New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, 1940. 24 pp., charts. (Bull. 78.)

Described as a byproduct of the cooperative investigation by the Department of Agriculture and the National Bureau of Economic Research on trends and causes of long-term changes in agricultural-industrial relationships. The study considers the effects of changes in the types of commodities used in the domestic markets and in prices for the different types of commodities, and also the effects of changes in foreign demand and exports.

*Income and earnings of farm laborers.* By Ernest J. Holcomb. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1940. 28 pp., charts; mimeographed. (Presented before Senate Committee on Education and Labor.)

Summary of farm wage data embodied in the reports of various special studies of the wages of hired farm workers and the incomes of sharecroppers.

*Numbers, distribution, composition, and employment status of farm labor group in the United States.* By William T. Ham and Josiah C. Folsom. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1940. 24 pp., charts; mimeographed. (Presented before a subcommittee of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, May 8, 1940.)

Summary of the employment statistics collected regularly by the Department of Agriculture and of data published in reports of various special studies.

*The farm labor situation in Texas.* By William C. Holley. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1940. 14 pp., charts; mimeographed. (Presented before Senate Committee on Education and Labor.)

*The legal status of the agricultural laborer in the South.* By Oscar Zeichner. (In Political Science Quarterly, New York, September 1940, pp. 412-428.)

Analysis of some of the legislation affecting white and Negro share tenants and sharecroppers from 1865 to the present.

### Cooperative Movement

*A B C of cooperatives—a handbook for consumers and producers.* By Gerald Richardson. New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1940. 264 pp.

A simply written description of how a cooperative association works, and how a consumers' cooperative, a producers' cooperative, and a credit union can be formed. An appendix gives questions for the use of study groups, and model bylaws for a Federal credit union, for a consumers' cooperative buying club, and for a cooperative store.

*Can we cooperate?* By Bob Brown. Pleasant Plains, N. Y., Roving Eye Press, 1940. 232 pp.

Vivid account of the activities, privations, internal struggles, and accomplishments of the "hopefully striving" band of some 400 families that made up Llano Cooperative Colony, ending with the dissolution of the colony by court order at the end of 1939. The story is told through the medium of personalities and the day-by-day activities of the individual colonists.

*Federal credit unions—annual report on operations, December 31, 1939.* Washington, U. S. Farm Credit Administration, 1940. 28 pp., charts.

Detailed statistics of credit unions chartered under the Federal Credit Union Act. Some of these data were used in the article on 1939 operations of credit unions in the United States, which appeared in the September 1940 Monthly Labor Review.

*Seventh annual report of U. S. Farm Credit Administration, 1939.* Washington, 1940. 260 pp., charts.

Includes information on work of the cooperative research and service division and the credit union section.

*Wartime congress: Report of proceedings at 72d Cooperative Congress, Glasgow, 1940.* Manchester, England, Cooperative Union, 1940. 122 pp.

*What was said at Congress: Report of proceedings at 71st Cooperative Congress, Margate, England, 1939.* Manchester, Cooperative Union, [1939?]. 142 pp.

### Cost and Standards of Living

*Family income and expenditures, Middle Atlantic and North Central Region and New England Region: Part 1, Family income.* Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1940. 446 pp., charts. (Miscellaneous publication No. 370; Consumer purchases study, urban and village series.)

*Intercity comparison of the cost of living.* Albany, N. Y., Citizens Bureau of Governmental Research, Inc., 1940. 16 pp.; mimeographed.

In the 12 cities and two boroughs—Brooklyn and Manhattan—in New York State, covered by this survey, the annual cost of living was found to be highest in Yonkers (\$1,443.57) and lowest in Troy (\$1,293.88). The figures are for a 4-person manual worker's family. The survey was made early in 1940, but the figures have been adjusted to the December 15, 1939, cost-of-living figures of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. Comparative data of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for various localities in the United States are included.

*Household budgets of wage earners in Canadian cities.* By H. F. Greenway and D. L. Ralston. (In Public Affairs, Institute of Public Affairs, Dalhousie University, Halifax, N. S., August 1940, pp. 8-12.)

Some data from the budgetary study on which the above article is based were published in the September 1939 Monthly Labor Review (p. 708).

### Economic and Social Problems

*America, Incorporated: Recent economic history of the United States.* By Leo Huberman. New York, Viking Press, 1940. 251 pp.

Described as a history of the American economy since the Civil War. The first part deals with the period up to 1929, which the author describes as the era of the saga of big business. The second part, which covers the last 10 years in much more detail, describes the measures undertaken by the Government during this period as being mainly significant in educating the people in "the workings and unworkabilities" of the American economic system without fundamental changes. Two of the 13 chapters deal specifically with labor organizations.

*Idle money, idle men.* By Stuart Chase. New York, Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1940. 252 pp., charts.

The author states that "progress born of opening up new territories, building new cities, accompanied by large increases in population, is halting. It had to. The world is only so big. Extensive investment in perpetual growth is a mathematical impossibility." He insists, however, that this is not, as some charge, an attitude of "defeatism." He holds that by a slight change in direction the American economy has almost limitless possibilities of development. The change of direction that is proposed would be brought about largely by "accelerated adjustment in the lag between technology and finance—the ability to produce and the ability to buy back."

*Into abundance.* By Soren K. Ostergaard. Chicago, Willett, Clark & Co., 1940. 154 pp., illus.

Examines the distribution of wealth in the United States, the basis of American prosperity, and examples of what the writer considers false economy and of steps in the right direction. Included in the latter are the Tennessee Valley Authority, and the work of the U. S. Resettlement Administration, the Federal Housing Administration, and the U. S. Housing Authority. The author gives "a recipe for abundance" which includes utilization of idle resources, and the exchange of services under a cooperative self-help plan.

*The brimstone game: Monopoly in action.* By R. H. Montgomery. New York, Vanguard Press, 1940. 94 pp.

A critical and picturesquely phrased study of monopoly, with particular reference to the sulphur industry.

### Education and Training

*Guidance programs for rural high schools.* By Paul W. Chapman. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1940. 58 pp. (Vocational division bull. No. 203; Occupational information and guidance series, No. 3.)

According to this report one of the most urgent tasks at present facing public education at the secondary-school level is "the organization and administration of complete occupational information and guidance services."

*Nautical schools.* Hearings before Committee on Merchant Marine and Fisheries, House of Representatives, 76th Congress, May 1939, February and March, 1940. Washington, 1940. 93 pp.

Describes the training of young men for work at sea that is carried on in the nautical schools, and the need for expansion of this training service in order to man the merchant marine and to build up reserves for the United States Navy.

### Employment and Unemployment

*Inventory of job seekers registered at public employment offices, April 1940.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Employment Security, 1940. 23 pp., charts; mimeographed.

*Can unemployment be ended?* By John A. Ryan. Washington, American Association for Economic Freedom, 1940. 13 pp.

Address at regional meeting of Catholic Conference on Industrial Problems at New Orleans, April 8, 1940.

*Unemployment must be abolished.* Washington, American Association for Economic Freedom, 1940. 31 pp.

Three addresses, and excerpts from 2 others, delivered at the Interfaith Conference on Unemployment held in Washington in June 1940, together with the report of the findings committee.

### Housing

*Federal housing of war industry workers, 1917-18.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 8 pp. (Serial No. R. 1140, reprint from July 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

*Housing yearbook, 1940.* Chicago, National Association of Housing Officials, 1940. 296 pp.

Monographs on housing subjects and a directory of housing agencies.

*The law of public housing.* By William Ebenstein. Madison, University of Wisconsin Press, 1940. 150 pp.

Includes a discussion of the more significant elements that enter into the housing problem, governmental activities and institutions in the field, and housing experience outside the United States.

*Negro housing in Chicago.* By Horace R. Cayton. (In Social Action, Council for Social Action of Congregational and Christian Churches, New York, April 15, 1940, pp. 4-39; illus.)

*XXII memoria de la Comisión Nacional de Casas Baratas [Argentina], Ley No. 9677, 1939-1940.* Buenos Aires, Ministerio del Interior, 1940. 76 pp., illus.

Annual report of Argentine National Commission for Low-Cost Housing for the year 1939 and the first quarter of 1940. The projects covered in this report are all located in the city of Buenos Aires.

### Immigration and Immigrants

*Control of aliens in British Commonwealth of nations.* By C. F. Fraser. London, Hogarth Press, 1940. 304 pp.

Analysis of legislation, case law, and administrative procedure concerning the subject covered. Changes that have taken place since the outbreak of the war in September 1939 are included. The author also points out what he considers some of the defects of the present system.



*Memoria que el Instituto Técnico de Inmigración y Colonización presenta al Ejecutivo Federal por intermedio del Ministerio de Agricultura y Cria, año de 1940 [Venezuela].* Caracas, Instituto Técnico de Inmigración y Colonización, 1940. 102 pp., maps, charts.

An account of Venezuelan governmental activity in connection with planned immigration, including the establishment of agricultural colonies, looking toward the betterment of rural living conditions and the development of Venezuelan resources.

### Industrial Relations

*Addresses on industrial relations, 1940.* Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, 1940. 121 pp.; mimeographed. (Bureau of Industrial Relations report No. 10.)

Summaries of addresses delivered at the annual conference on industrial relations sponsored by the Bureau of Industrial Relations at the University of Michigan.

*A bibliography on employee relations.* Washington, U. S. Home Owner's Loan Corporation, 1939. 26 pp.; mimeographed.

The foreword to the bibliography states that in assembling the references emphasis was placed on the development, by management, of ways to attain wholesome human relations rather than on the various aspects of employee organization and collective bargaining.

*Primer of labor relations.* Washington, Bureau of National Affairs, Inc., 1940. 69 pp.

An explanation of labor-industrial relationships under the National Labor Relations Act, and the rights and responsibilities of employers and employees.

*Effective collective bargaining: Outline, bibliography, and statements from authorities on role of the written trade agreement.* By David J. Saposs and Lyle Cooper. Washington, U. S. National Labor Relations Board, 1940. 33 pp.; mimeographed. Revised ed. (Research outline No. 7.)

*Conciliation and cooperation in collective bargaining.* New York, American Management Association, 1940. 48 pp. (Personnel series, No. 44.)

*Share-the-work provisions in union agreements.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 9 pp. (Serial No. R. 1128, reprint from June 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

*Peaceful picketing and freedom of speech.* By Charles O. Gregory. (In American Bar Association Journal, Chicago, September 1940, pp. 709-715.)

*Look at labor.* By Leon Goodelman. New York, Modern Age Books, Inc., 1940. 210 pp.

A highly condensed summary of methods used by various employers in their fight against labor organizations and particularly against unions within their own plants. The survey is based largely on the voluminous material contained in the reports of the LaFollette Civil Liberties Committee on industrial relations.

*Report of New York State Labor Relations Board for period from July 1, 1937, to December 31, 1939.* Albany, 1940. 230 pp.

### Industry Reports

*The railroad industry.* By Lotys Benning Stewart. Indianapolis, National Youth Administration for Indiana, 1940. 119 pp., bibliography, charts; mimeographed.

Deals with the present status of railroads and their development; standardization, regulation, research, technological changes, and future trends in the industry; railroad workers, their wages and hours, protection, and training, and the kinds of jobs held or available.

*Railroad reorganization.* (In Law and Contemporary Problems, Duke University, School of Law, Vol. VII, No. 3, Durham, N. C., 1940, pp. 365-542.)

A symposium that includes a paper by A. F. Whitney on "Labor's interest in railroad reorganization", and one by A. B. Rood on "Protecting the user interest in railroad reorganization."

*Steel: A pictorial presentation of a basic American industry.* New York, United States Steel Corporation, 1939. 113 pp., illus.

The pictures and accompanying textual comments deal with the raw materials of the steel industry, the making of iron and steel, the manufacture of the main products, modes of research, and some of the uses of steel, as in bridge building, shipbuilding, and power production.

*Through the dock gates.* By Reginald Kennedy-Cox. London, Michael Joseph, Ltd., 1939. 286 pp., illus.

Records the growth of the British dock system, the problems arising from intermittent employment of dock labor, and the social services established for these workers.

### Labor and Social Legislation

*Prison-labor legislation, as of June 1, 1940.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 8 pp. (Serial No. R. 1130, reprint from June 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

*Railroad legislation on full crew, personnel, and train lengths.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 6 pp. (Serial No. R. 1131, reprint from June 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

The full texts of the laws summarized in this article have been published in bulletin form by the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen (Cleveland, Ohio).

*Social legislation: American laws dealing with family, child, and dependent.* By Helen I. Clarke. New York and London, D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1940. 655 pp.

*Summary of hours of service regulations for operators of motor vehicles, by States.* Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, April 15, 1940. 53 pp.; mimeographed.

*Leyes obreras de la República Argentina.* By F. Greil Castellanos. Buenos Aires, Antonio Lacort, Librería Colón, 1939. 868 pp.

Compilation of the labor and social-welfare legislation of the Argentine Republic and of each province, through September 28, 1938, classified by topic and annotated, with a thorough system of cross references.

*Disposiciones legales vigentes sobre trabajo [Costa Rica].* Compiled by Alberto Duran Rocha. San José, Imprenta Nacional, 1939. 91 pp.

Compilation of the labor legislation enacted and in force in Costa Rica, through September 21, 1939, dealing with working conditions, protection of workers, cost of living, and workmen's accident compensation.

*Labor code of Ecuador, 1938.* (In Serial No. R. 1120, Labor conditions in Latin America, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, 1940, pp. 15-26.)

### Labor Organizations and Congresses

*The Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of North America.* By Patrick E. Gorman. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, August 1940, pp. 5-7.)

*Report of 39th annual conference of the Labor Party, held at Bournemouth, England, May 13-16, 1940.* London, Labor Party, 1940. 200 pp.

In addition to the proceedings of the conference, important documents dealing with the position taken by the Labor Party in connection with the present war are included.

### Migration and Migrants

*The migrants—VI, Migration to California.* By Seymour J. Janow and Davis McEntire. (In Land Policy Review, U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Washington, July-August 1940, pp. 24-36; charts.)

The last of a series of articles on migration to the far western States during the past decade, published in the Land Policy Review. The first of the series was in the issue for September-October 1939.

*Violations of free speech and rights of labor: California agricultural background; California's migrant problem—work of Federal and State agencies.* Hearings before a subcommittee of Committee on Education and Labor, U. S. Senate, 76th Congress, 3d session, San Francisco, Calif., January 25, 1940. Washington, 1940. 211 pp.

### Nutrition

*Human nutrition (with literature cited).* Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1940. (Reprint of Part I of Yearbook of Agriculture, 1939, pp. 97-402, 1075-1142; bibliography, charts, illus.)

The articles presented give detailed information regarding the functions of the various food nutrients—carbohydrates, fats, proteins, minerals, and vitamins—and the relation of diet to health and disease.

*Feeding the nation [Great Britain] in peace and war.* By George Walworth. London, George Allen & Unwin Ltd., 1940. 548 pp.

The problem of feeding the nation is viewed from the standpoint of the consumer. The author points out that a complete overhauling of the machinery of production and supply for the benefit of the whole nation is essential.

### Prices

*Prices and price indexes supplement, 1938 and 1939.* Ottawa, Canada, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1940. 106 pp.; mimeographed.

A record of the series of prices included in the Canadian Bureau of Statistics' index numbers of wholesale prices in Canada during 1938 and 1939.

*Retail prices of hosiery, by areas, December 1926 to March 1940, inclusive.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 16 pp.; mimeographed.

### Social Security

*Social security in relation to agriculture and rural areas.* By A. J. Altmeyer. (In Social Security Bulletin, U. S. Social Security Board, Washington, July 1940, pp. 3-15.)

*Retirement report, fiscal year ended June 30, 1939—Civil Service Retirement Act, Canal Zone Retirement Act, and Alaska Railroad Retirement Act.* Washington, U. S. Civil Service Commission, 1940. 50 pp.

*Old age in Sweden—a program of social security.* By Helen Fisher Hohman. Washington, U. S. Social Security Board, 1940. 305 pp., bibliography, map, charts.

An analysis of (1) the general provision for old-age pensions in Sweden, including coverage, contributions, benefits, adequacy of benefits, administration, etc.; (2) the national system of voluntary pensions, and other public provision for the aged; and (3) public medical care and sickness insurance.

*Rapport van de Staatscommissie inzake de Financiering van de Invaliditeits- en ouderdomsverzekering, ingesteld bij koninklijk besluit van 9 Februari 1939, No. 44.* The Hague, Netherlands, 1940. 171 pp.

Report of Netherlands State Commission on the Financing of the Invalidity and Old-Age Insurance Funds, including information on pertinent legislation, income and disbursements of the insurance funds, and an actuarial report.

*Report of Dominion Commissioner of Unemployment Relief for fiscal year ending March 31, 1940.* Ottawa, Canada, Department of Labor, 1940. 41 pp.

Under the provisions of the Unemployment and Agricultural Assistance Act, 1939, the Dominion continued to assist the provinces in the granting of relief to needy persons, and in plans for the rehabilitation of older unemployed workers.

### Technological Changes

*Mechanization and the use of labor on farms.* By Sherman E. Johnson and R. S. Kifer. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1940. 21 pp. and charts; mimeographed. (Presented at hearings before the Senate Civil Liberties Committee, May 10, 1940.)

Summary of some of the principal sources of information on technological changes in farming and their effects on employment.



*Mechanical shoveling in underground metal mines.* By McHenry Mosier and J. H. Steinmesch. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1940. 97 pp., diagrams, illus. (Bull. No. 423.)

Describes the types of mechanical shovels in use and cites comparative cost data for hand and machine work.

*Survey of economic theory on technological change and employment.* By Alexander Gourvitch. Washington, U. S. Work Projects Administration, 1940. xiii, 252 pp. (National Research Project, Report No. G-6.)

The survey goes back to the views of Adam Smith and other early economists and traces the changes in economic theory as bearing on the effects of technological change on employment. It is pointed out that the views formerly prevailing among economists were to the effect that inherent compensating factors operating in a system of free enterprise would prevent technological changes from bringing about any serious or long-continued unemployment, either of labor or of capital. There is some discussion of the bearing of geographical expansion and frontier opportunity on these economic theories. It is pointed out that under more recent conditions the system of free enterprise has tended to lose its capacity to expand and that this fact has had a significant effect on more recent economic theories associated with such writers as J. M. Keynes, A. H. Hansen, and Simon Kuznets.

### *Vacations With Pay*

*Company vacation plans, 1940.* New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1940. 11 pp. (Research memorandum No. 5.)

Gives details of vacation plans adopted by 12 companies.

*Paid vacations in Latin America.* By Eugene D. Owen. (In Serial No. R. 1120, Labor conditions in Latin America, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, 1940, pp. 1-12.)

### *Wages and Hours of Labor*

*Wages, hours, and productivity of industrial labor, 1909 to 1939.* By Witt Bowden. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 28 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 1150, reprint from September 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

*Union wages, hours, and working conditions in building trades, June 1, 1939.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 87 pp. (Bull. No. 674.)

*Hours of work of municipal firemen in the United States.* By Carol P. Brainerd and Gerald M. Whitright. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 14 pp. (Serial No. R. 1141, reprint from July 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Data from a survey, made by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, of wages, hours, and working conditions in fire departments of cities having populations of 25,000 and over.

*Union wages, hours, and working conditions of motortruck drivers, June 1, 1939.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 54 pp. (Bull. No. 676.)

*Opinion manual of general counsel, Wage and Hour Division, U. S. Department of Labor.* Washington, 1940. 274 pp. (Vol. 1.)

Index and digest of all important opinions issued from July 1938 to July 1939.

*Results of a survey of wage changes in Canadian industry from September 1, 1939, to January 31, 1940.* Kingston, Ontario, Queen's University, School of Commerce and Administration, Industrial Relations Section, 1940. 9 pp.; mimeographed.

Brings together replies from 320 parent companies of which 122 reported wage increases.

### *Wartime Labor and Industrial Conditions*

*Mobilizing civilian America.* By Harold J. Tobin and Percy W. Bidwell. New York, Council on Foreign Relations, 1940. 276 pp.

A detailed discussion of methods a democracy may adopt to meet wartime requirements, with a minimum sacrifice of the liberties of civilians. Experience in the last war is reviewed, and the emergency controls that have been planned are analyzed. It is stated in the foreword that probably 75 percent of national war effort would be civilian and 25 percent, or less, military.

*The War Industries Board, 1917-1918: A study in industrial mobilization.* By Randall B. Kester. (In *American Political Science Review*, Evanston, Ill., August 1940, pp. 655-684.)

*National service and contracts of employment.* By E. Herz and I. Bessling. (In *International Labor Review*, Geneva, July 1940, pp. 1-28.)

Reinstatement in former employment and payment of wages of mobilized workers, in belligerent and certain nonbelligerent countries, are dealt with in this article on the status of contracts of employment when workers are called to the colors.

*The influence of the war and mobilization on hours of work and rest periods.* (In *International Labor Review*, Geneva, March 1940, pp. 291-306.)

This article covers 14 countries, continuing and supplementing a survey for 5 countries published in the November 1939 *International Labor Review*.

*Information on provisions which a number of Canadian companies are making for employees leaving for active military service.* Kingston, Ontario, Queen's University, School of Commerce and Administration, Industrial Relations Section, 1939. 12 pp.; mimeographed.

*Labor, the war, and the peace.* London, Labor Party, 1940. 9 pp.

Declaration of policy by the national executive of the British Labor Party.

*The war and after: Labor's home policy.* London, Labor Party, 1940. 11 pp.

### *Workmen's Compensation*

*Problems of workmen's compensation administration in the United States and Canada.* By Marshall Dawson. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 229 pp. (Bull. No. 672.)

*Workmen's compensation in Canada—a comparison of provincial laws.* Ottawa, Department of Labor, July 1940. 23 pp.; mimeographed.

### *Youth Problems*

*The community and its young people.* Prepared by M. M. Chambers for American Youth Commission. Washington, American Council on Education, 1940. 36 pp., bibliography.

Addressed to American communities with the purpose of aiding them to mobilize their forces in order to realize their high hopes for their young people. One section of the report deals with the problem of jobs for young persons.

*Community responsibility for youth.* Recommendations of American Youth Commission of American Council on Education. Washington, American Council on Education, 1940. 9 pp.

According to the report, all existing community councils should give renewed attention to the youth in their midst. Where the community resources for youth are not mobilized and are not wholly effective "the call to action should be sounded."

*Disadvantaged youth on the labor market.* By Stanley L. Payne. Washington, U. S. Work Projects Administration, Division of Research, 1940. 20 pp.; mimeographed. (Series 1, No. 25.)

Some of the data in the above pamphlet, taken from a preliminary report, were published in the November 1939 issue of the *Monthly Labor Review* (p. 1098).

*The occupational adjustment of youth.* Recommendations of American Youth Commission of American Council on Education. Washington, American Council on Education, 1940. 14 pp.

Summarizes the Commission's major findings and conclusions to April 15, 1940, on problems with which the pamphlet deals.

*Should youth organize?* Recommendations of American Youth Commission of American Council on Education. Washington, American Council on Education, 1940. 7 pp.

The Commission believes that youth-led organizations can be of distinct value because of the contributions they can make to important educational processes.

*Young workers and their jobs in 1936—a survey in six States.* By Helen Wood. Washington, U. S. Children's Bureau, 1940. 95 pp., charts. (Bureau publication No. 249.)

This study includes 2,019 employed minors under 18 years of age. The data collected deal with family background, education, work history, employing industries, occupations, accident and health hazards, hours of work, and earnings.

*The youth of New York City.* By Nettie Pauline McGill and Ellen Nathalie Matthews. New York, Macmillan Co., 1940. 420 pp.

Results of a survey made in 1935 under the auspices of the Welfare Council of New York City. The study covered the home and family background of these young people, their relief status, their school and employment status, and their leisure and its utilization. Some of the findings were published in the February 1937 Monthly Labor Review (p. 267) and later reprinted in pamphlet form (U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Serial No. R. 511).

*Youth in the Pike's Peak Region: A study of the economic status of youths (12 to 21 years) and their attitude toward their environment.* Prepared by Alice E. van Diest for the Colorado Springs Youth Council and Colorado College. Colorado Springs, 1940. 47 pp.

Two of the most vital and perplexing youth problems disclosed by this study are boy and girl friendships which may lead to marriage, and finding out and holding to the right kind of vocation.

*Review of [Canadian] Dominion-Provincial youth-training program and the National forestry program for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1940.* Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1940. 24 pp.

The report covers the third year of operation of the training program which is carried on for young men and women between the ages of 16 and 30 who are not gainfully employed and whose families cannot pay the full cost of their training. Nearly 50,000 persons were given training in the various types of projects during the year.

### General Reports

*Annual report of Tennessee Valley Authority, for fiscal year ended June 30, 1939.* Washington, 1940. 478 pp., map, charts.

In addition to statistics relating to water control and water-power utilization, the report contains data on sales of power and appliances to various types of customers (including 21 cooperative electric associations), salaries and housing of TVA employees, and employee-management relations.

*The South in progress.* By Katherine DuPre Lumpkin. New York, International Publishers, 1940. 256 pp.

The subjects covered include the sharecropping system; labor and trade unionism; civil liberty; housing, diet, and other elements in the standard of living; and the effects on the South of recent public policies. The study is extensively documented by reference notes at the end of the volume.

*Labor report [Australia], 1938.* Canberra, Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics, 1940. 179 pp.

Includes information on prices, wages, employment, and related labor subjects. Some of the data on prices and employment are for 1939.

*The thirty-ninth financial and economic annual of Japan, 1939.* Tokyo, Department of Finance, [1940?]. 271 pp., map, charts.

The annual contains index numbers of wages in different industries for the years 1936 to 1938, and shows the number of employees in the chief manufacturing industries from 1928 to 1937.



*Report of New Zealand Department of Labor, April 1, 1939, to March 31, 1940.* Wellington, 1940. 40 pp.

Gives data on operations under the various labor laws, statistics of employment from 1913 to 1940, minimum wage rates in a number of principal industries as of May 31, 1940, and lists of organizations of workers and employers.

*Palestine Economic Corporation, thirteenth annual report, calendar year 1939.* New York, 1940. 62 pp., illus.

The report of the corporation includes data on the operation of the Central Bank of Cooperative Institutions (organized to foster and aid the cooperative movement in Palestine), housing for refugees, and the economic development of the country.

*Statistical year book, Quebec [Province], 1939.* Quebec, Department of Municipal Affairs, Trade and Commerce, 1940. 466 pp. (In English and French.)

Includes data, for the Province of Quebec, concerning immigration, pensions, prices, labor disputes, labor inspection, employment bureaus, unemployment relief, industrial accidents, and cooperative societies.

*Memoria del Ministerio del Trabajo y de Comunicaciones [Venezuela], año civil 1939.* Caracas, 1940. xxiii, 696 pp.

Report for the calendar year 1939 of the Venezuelan Ministry of Labor and Communications. The section on labor contains data on labor inspection, industrial disputes, work of employment offices, agricultural labor, wages, compulsory sharing of profits, cost of living, housing, industrial accidents, night work of women and minors, labor legislation, and court decisions.

# MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

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♦ HUGH S. HANNA, EDITOR ♦

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